

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 5, 1874.

The Week.

THE election returns show in all quarters an overwhelming Republican defeat. For magnitude and importance, there has been nothing like it since the elections of 1860. In this State, in which the Republican majority was some 55,000 in 1872, the Democrats elect Tilden by a majority of from 30,000 to 45,000; and as the vote polled this year is probably not very far from that of two years ago, the indications are that from 80,000 to 100,000 voters have, in this State alone, changed their votes from Republican to Democratic. In the city the result of the voting shows that a great deal of discrimination was exercised, and that the regular tickets were not by any means voted blindly, the votes polled for Ottendorfer, 24,000, and Wales, 37,000, showing that Wickham, the Tammany candidate for mayor, who is elected by a total vote of 70,000, might possibly have been defeated by a united opposition; the only candidate in the city on whom the opposition to Tammany was as a matter of fact united—Jones—being elected Register by about 10,000 majority. Jones's opponent was the notorious "Jimmy" Hayes, one of the men implicated in the Ring frauds, and the election of his opponent shows that Tammany, now that it has carried the day, will have to behave itself better than formerly, if it wishes to retain power. As we go to press, the returns for Congress and the Assembly are not sufficiently clear to say more than that in all human probability both sets of elections have gone Democratic, thus securing a Democratic senator from this State next winter. More remarkable, however, than the victory in New York is the Democratic success in Massachusetts, that State electing Mr. Gaston Governor by about 10,000 majority, and making it probable there also that a Democrat will replace Mr. Sumner's *locum tenens* next winter. On Butler's defeat, though it has taken place in a way which neither we nor probably any one outside his district expected, we profoundly congratulate our readers and the country, for it shows that neither money, nor influence, nor impudence, nor unblushing rascality has yet destroyed the value of the ballot as a means of self-protection in the hands of the honest and self-respecting part of the community. It should not be overlooked that his defeat has been accomplished by the Democrats on a strictly hard-currency platform, the principles of the party both in Massachusetts and New York being not merely unobjectionable but admirable. In Mr. Dawes's old district the Democratic candidate is elected, and General Banks goes back to Congress. Butler's friend, Ayer, is also probably defeated. The detailed returns from the various States are not yet complete, but the general result is that in the next Congress the House will be either decidedly Democratic, or else evenly balanced.

The Republican newspapers admit an overwhelming defeat, and the *Times* attributes it, no doubt correctly, to the indifference displayed by the party leaders to public opinion. "They have apparently believed," it says, "that the people would quietly submit to anything and everything, and that the party which they represented was indestructible. Nothing short of the events which we record this morning could have opened their eyes to the truth. If a newspaper warned them in a friendly but firm spirit against the policy of blundering which they were pursuing, it was treated with a mixture of the insolence and arrogance which they exhibited toward all opposition. . . . It will be the lot of the President to discover, in common with many great men who have gone before him, that foolish flatterers and venal newspapers cannot turn aside the current of public opinion." Should the next Congress turn out to be pretty evenly di-

vided, it will give the President more power in the way of obstructing legislation than he has had since Johnson's time, and, on the whole, this will not be a bad thing. Of the "third term" we shall probably hear no more. Of the value of the revolution as a rebuke to corruption and recklessness there can be no sort of question; whether it will give us positive improvement depends on the use the Democrats make of their power during the next two years. They have a great opportunity, as great as any party ever had. Let us hope they will use it with more wisdom than they have of late years displayed. In the meantime, we trust that Conkling, and Butler, and Cameron, and Dawes, and the rest, will not despair of popular government; let them remember that the country is now, as it was last year, in the hands of the majority of the people.

The steady improvement of the tone of the press is beginning to have a depressing effect on campaigns in this city. In a heated canvass we always used not merely to count upon the "ball of discussion" being kept in motion, but on a pretty steady stream of language of an ingenious if not novel kind, known to the editorial world, when looked at from the point of view of amicable approval, as *persiflage*; but when regarded by the hostile and irritated victim, as "foul-mouthed Billingsgate." But latterly there has been a terrible falling off. At the opening of the campaign we did observe a disposition on the part of some of our contemporaries to let us know a few of the real facts about one another, and at one time we hoped that the difficulties between the *World* and the *Mail* might lead to a general resumption of hostilities. The *Mail* had committed an offence, according to the *World*, not so much against that paper as against the truth, and the *World* felt itself obliged to take measures to prevent a repetition of the offence, by warning the editor, whom it calls "Major Bumbleby," to desist from these practices on pain of having his "ears and epaulets cut off." We have seen one or two references also to "that brutal sheet," the *Times*, in the *World*, and to the *World* in the *Times*, from which we learn that the former is still edited by a "representative of Whitechapel," that it "invents a new lie in behalf of General Dix every day," and that it supported the Tweed Ring for a long time—though it is some consolation to learn that the republication of Mr. Tilden's pamphlet, or part of it, completely answered its purpose "as a refutation of the forty daily falsehoods" which the *Times* has been "revamping or inventing," and "puts that most mendacious and brutal sheet under the pump"; while, on the other hand, we find that as "the *World* people" "never had any personal character to lose," it is not surprising that they can "afford to do without it," and also that in 1868, had it not been for money furnished by parties unknown, by whom "the sheriff was paid off," the *World* would now be in the hands of its creditors. These and similar revelations have led the *Tribune* to protest against the lies which fill the air, but that fastidious sheet, with a reserve which in the old times would not have been tolerated, keeps itself out of the *mêlée* altogether.

The Springfield *Republican* has frequently been very angry with the *Nation*, and has spoken of it with jerky unkindness because of the severe view we have occasionally taken of the character of Mr. Dawes. Indeed, it is hardly three months since it rebuked us for elevating Mr. Garfield above Mr. Dawes. Within the last week, however, it has been itself compelled to abandon the latter. It says all the severe things we have ever said of him, and many more of its own. In fact, it gives him up as a bad job, and says that he is entirely untrustworthy, and is his own worst enemy, which is perhaps the hardest thing one can say of a man, for it means that until he can get rid of himself there is no chance of his improving. The cause of this onslaught was the delivery of a speech by Mr. Dawes, which was, we admit, thoroughly repulsive, sophistical, tricky, teeming with evasion, suppression, and misrepresentation—the speech, in

short, of an unscrupulous criminal lawyer to a general-sessions jury. He was as full of reliance on "outrages" as Moses or Kellogg or Pinchback. He even said that the poor colored man at the South went to bed every night trembling for the morrow. Either he did not believe this, or he did. If he did not, what are we to say of his morality? If he did, was there ever such assurance?—for he was praising the Republican party, and yet gave this as the result of ten years of Reconstruction. Since then he has gone rampant into Butler's district, and been stumping for him vigorously, in spite of his inflation, repudiation, and other enormities, saying that the main question for New England Republicans was to send an unbroken delegation to Congress—that is, a delegation including Butler. Nevertheless, we were thought to be too hard on Mr. Dawes when we accused him of going off to Berkshire "on business" solely to avoid his plain duty in the Simmons case. We are not sorry on the whole that he has thrown aside the little restraints and disguises which have so long imposed on our Springfield brethren. We sha'n't have any weeping over his "grey hairs" any longer. He now at last appears openly and plainly in his real character—that of a light-headed, unstable politician, without moral weight or tenacity, or clear moral perceptions, or any grasp of principles, or any creed but the latest party platform, or any outlook beyond the party lines.

The passage of the controlling interest in the *Chicago Tribune* out of the hands of Mr. Horace White, who has held it for some years, into those of Mr. Medill, is an event of some political importance, owing to the prominent part the *Tribune* has played for some time back in opposition to the Administration. Mr. Medill's intention is, it is announced, to bring the paper back into the regular Republican ranks, and although he announces that it is to be "independent" still, he is an editor of the old school, with somewhat different notions of the meaning of that term from those now prevalent. He is going to assail abuses, it is said, but "within the party lines." What this means one might best learn by going to see the virtuous Mr. Dawes stumping the Essex District in Massachusetts for the most notorious inflationist and corruptionist and most unprincipled politician in either the Republican or Democratic parties. In fact, "reform within the party lines" may mean prayer and praise in the church pews, but it may apparently also mean card-playing on the altar. Mr. White's management of the paper raised it to the highest rank of journalism, in the best sense of the term, as well as to the greatest commercial success; though it was marred by one serious mistake, which nothing but ability prevented from proving disastrous. The support of Mr. Greeley was the worst blow "independent journalism" could have received, both because it was a sacrifice of private judgment and of plain political principle to party rules, and because the "independence" was still a novelty which the public had hardly begun to understand. This error led to another of less consequence—the support of the Granger folly about railroads—based though it was on the grossest economical delusions and the plainest contempt for morality. Its use of fine words, such as "extortion" and "monopoly," and its disregard of the existing party organizations, led the *Tribune* as well as other Liberal Republicans into the belief that something in the nature of a healthy opposition might grow out of it. Mr. White, we fancy, became sensible very early that this was a mistake. Mr. Medill is an able and well-informed man, but he is narrow and one-sided, and has a large stock of half-truths, of which he will doubtless make the *Tribune* a vigorous exponent.

The Joint Committee of the two Houses of the Episcopal Convention adopted on Saturday a canon by which it is provided that "if any bishop have reason to believe, or if complaint be made to him in writing by two or more of his presbyters, that within his jurisdiction ceremonies or practices not ordered or authorized in the Book of Common Prayer, setting forth or symbolizing erroneous or doubtful doctrines, have been introduced by any minister during the celebration of the Holy Communion (such as the elevation of the elements in the Holy Communion in such a manner as to expose

them to the view of the people as objects toward which adoration is to be made; any act of adoration of or toward the elements in the Holy Communion, such as bowings, prostrations, genuflexions, and all other like acts not authorized or allowed in the Book of Common Prayer), it shall be the duty of such bishop to summon the Standing Committee as his council of advice, and with them to investigate the matter." And that if after this investigation it appears to the bishop and the Standing Committee "that ceremonies or practices not ordained or authorized as aforesaid are setting forth or symbolizing erroneous or doubtful doctrines," the bishop shall admonish the minister of the parish, and, if he disregards this admonition, that he shall be tried for a breach of his ordination vow.

We have carefully avoided hitherto saying anything on the subject of the safe-burglary trial now going on at Washington, because of the difficulty, which still exists, of writing intelligently about it. Of all the many dark holes and corners investigated at Washington last winter, there was none darker than that of this burglary, which was said to be, on the one hand, an attempt to get rid of damaging evidence, and on the other an effort by means of a sham attempt to get up a feeling of sympathy with those against whom the crime purported to be committed. Add to this that the principal witness for the Government, Zirrueth, is, on his own statement, a rogue, who has been so suspected by his fellow-rogues that they have been following him about the country, and trying to spirit him out of it, and that the court trying the case has been obliged to take public cognizance of an attempt in the local press to interfere with the course of justice (some of the papers accusing the court of an intention to prevent a fair trial), and that the court and counsel do not get on at all well together, and we have a confusion compared to which the De Golyer contract or the Crédit-Mobilier swindle are plain sailing. It ought not to be forgotten either that one or two of those deeply involved have been very careful to keep out of the way of judicial process, so that the jury have a difficult task before them.

A recent report on the revenues of the English universities, and the manner of their expenditure, shows that a very, some think a scandalously, large proportion is devoted to fellowships, each worth about \$1,500 a year, awarded by competitive examination, the holders of which make no return for them whatever in the shape of labor; in fact, they are prizes for past proficiency, and nothing more. But, as the *Pall Mall Gazette* points out, even this mode of disposing of the money is a reform made in 1854. Previous to that period fellowships were given, without examination, to persons born in a particular diocese, educated at a particular school, or belonging to a particular family. But then the fellow of that period usually remained in his college until he took a church living, which he all but invariably did; each college at the two great universities having a number of livings in its gift, which always went to its fellows. Since 1854 this is all changed. Young men of ability are now reluctant to take orders and enter on ministerial duties, not only because rationalistic views have made much progress among them, but because the controversies by which the church has been agitated of late years, controversies about clothes, and genuflexions, and ornaments, and ceremony, seem contemptible or ridiculous. The question whether a priest can perform such a little miracle every day as turning bread and wine into flesh and blood, which lies at the root of church disputes, is one which men of brains will not busy themselves with. Accordingly, fellows nowadays, as soon as they get their fellowships, hurry into some of the manlier and more robust callings, and use the income to help them over the earlier and more difficult years, while they are working their way into practice and fame. In fact, there is something suicidal in the dawdling of the Episcopal Church, both here and in England, over the mode of dealing with the Ritualistic brethren, and in the affectation of respect which many people display for the absurd mediæval notion that a young "priest" can make invisible changes in physical phenomena.

The details of the elections of the Councils-General in France have come out by the last mail, and they contain the result, after the second balloting, in 86 cases, of 1,431 elections out of a total of 1,436. Of these 1,431 members elected, 672 are Republicans, 604 Monarchists, and 155 Bonapartists. The Republicans have made a total gain of 25, though their fortune has varied in different places. But the Monarchists have a majority in 44 councils, the Republicans only in 38, and in three the two parties are equally divided. The elections are said to have been on the whole very fair, and it is difficult to avoid seeing in them a valuable means of political education. Never before have Frenchmen had an opportunity of debating and voting in this peaceful way on the form of the government. The fears of coming foreign complications still cloud French politics, and increasingly so. The relations of the country with Germany are marked still by deep suspicion on both sides, which is aggravated by the enormous addition to the numerical strength of the army which is contemplated by some pending Prussian legislation, and by the unexpected sauciness of the Spaniards with regard to the aid afforded to the Carlists across the frontier. The demand of the Duc Decazes for "a bill of particulars" on the point has been met by a long note specifying a great many cases of what Spain considers violation of neutrality, and ending with the very unusual and really menacing demand that the French officials in the Southern Departments should be removed.

The note alleges that Carlist volunteers are permitted to pass the frontier; that Don Carlos's wife is allowed to live in France, close to the frontier; that when Don Carlos came into France he was not caught when he might have been; that uniforms of the French Garde Mobile have been freely sent into Spain for Carlist use; and that French vessels lying in the Bidassoa serve as depots for Carlist supplies. Of course many of these complaints are unanswerable, as the frontier is 250 miles long, and is mountainous, and is peopled by the most expert and daring smugglers in the world, and would require a large army to watch it on the French side, when the Spaniards are able to do little or nothing on theirs. But, reasonable or unreasonable, people naturally say that such hard remonstrances would hardly come from a power which cannot keep 35,000 men in the field, if it were not sure of strong backing from some other quarter. The Duc Decazes has, however, assured the Permanent Committee of the Assembly that there is no cause for alarm, that the note is quite harmless, and that the roughness of its tone must be ascribed to a foreign writer's want of skill in the use of the French language.

Additional "statements," and particularly one made evidently by a person in Count Arnim's confidence in the *Vossische Zeitung*, make his quarrel with Bismarck more intelligible. The Count appears to have stood very high in the Prince's confidence after May, 1872. Previously to that time he had been ambassador at Rome, and while there had furnished the advice on which Bismarck's policy towards the Papacy was based. He recommended the break with the Pope, and also the appointment of Cardinal Hohenlohe as minister in his own place, in the belief, which afterwards proved to be correct, that the Pope would not receive him, and that a total cessation of intercourse, which would be very convenient for Bismarck during the subsequent complications, would thus follow. After Count Arnim went to Paris, however, a coolness sprang up between him and Bismarck, not so much owing to differences of opinion on the French question as to the effect Arnim's view apparently produced on the mind of the King. Arnim thought he perceived that the result of Thiers's coquetting with Gambetta and the Radicals would be the permanent establishment of the Republic. About the same time the flight of Amadeus made him fear the establishment of a republic in Spain also, and he apparently believed the spread of republican institutions over so large a portion of European soil would be in some measure prejudicial to monarchical institutions in Germany; and this view, communicated by him, seems to have made some impression on the

King's mind. Arnim's plan of dealing with France was, therefore to delay the payment of the indemnity and continue the military occupation as long as possible, and in order to facilitate this to encourage as many changes in the French Government as possible. Bismarck, on the other hand, was eager for the establishment of the Republic as an assistance to him in his fight with the Papacy, and though he might have forgiven difference of opinion on the part of his subordinate on this point, he would not forgive the discredit which Arnim's communications to the court seemed likely to bring on his general policy. He, therefore, began to snub him, and to write letters of disapproval, which finally became insulting, with the view of driving him from his place. These letters, at least in the beginning, Arnim seems to have registered and numbered as part of the archives of the embassy, but subsequently concluded that they were private communications, and carried them with him when he had to quit his post. The question before the criminal court is whether they were really part of the public archives or not, and the Government relies on the registry book to prove that they were. The president of the court has published a letter denying indignantly that the action of the court has been in any way influenced by the Government, and has not been in strict accordance with the law.

The Berlin *Post*, replying to the opposition on this point, makes citations from the criminal code, showing that the mutilation, falsification, and obstruction of a public paper by any official charged with its custody is an offence punishable with imprisonment, and that the courts are armed with the power of preliminary arrest in all cases where a person accused with probable cause is likely to quit the country, or, if left at liberty, to "complicate the enquiry" by the destruction or suppression of evidence, and declares that the Foreign Office has played no other part in the affair than that of a prosecutor, like any private citizen. This is all drawn out by the taunts of the Ultramontane and Austrian press that Count Arnim had been arrested under a *lettre-de-cachet*.

A report of the proceedings of the Congress of German Economists held at Crefeld in August has been published. The Congress was well attended both by economists pure and by "practical men," and the discussions were both interesting and important. One of the principal subjects was railroad charges, and after long debate the following conclusions were reached, which we commend to the attention of Wisconsin moralists: 1. Charges for transportation on railroads cannot be withdrawn from the operation of the law of supply and demand; the cost of carriage being as much influenced by the situation of the market as the situation of the market by the cost of carriage. All interference on the part of the state, therefore, to reduce the tariff to the actual outlay, simply results in giving special advantages to certain branches of trade. A proper adjustment of charges can only be reached by leaving it to the carriers, who, however, ought not to be also proprietors of the road. 2. The restrictions imposed on the roads in the matter of fixing tariffs should consist simply in rules formulated with a view to the general welfare, and should consist of (a) the publication of all rates a certain period before their taking effect; (b) the application of the same rates to all classes of forwarders, leaving the company free, however, to discriminate in favor of freight offered in large quantities, or freight forwarded at regular intervals, or freight for returning cars, provided the same advantages are offered to all under the same conditions; (c) the fixing of a maximum which no company should be allowed to go beyond, and which should be revised at stated intervals. 3. The legislature should draw up the rules and rates under which the road should be used by carriers. It will be seen here that the Congress calls for a division of interest between the owners of the road and those of the rolling-stock as a means of bringing competition to bear on each road, but the carrying out of any such a plan as this would be full of difficulty. It will also be perceived that theft or confiscation forms no part of the German plan of reform.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE NEWSPAPERS.

THERE is something almost amusing in the efforts of the managing men of the Republican party to extract from the President a declaration of his unwillingness to accept a third term, and in his somewhat dogged determination not to make any such declaration. It is said, and we have no doubt truly, that he believes the outcry about a third term to be the work of the newspapers, and to have been got up by them solely for the sake of making a sensation, and that if he responded to it in any way, it would look as if they had been successful in "drawing" him, as the sporting men say. His state of mind about the third term we take to be precisely what his state of mind was about the second term, though somewhat different from his state of mind about the first. When he was first put in nomination, the Republican party was harassed by great anxiety about the attitude of the South. The proceedings of Andrew Johnson had created a vague alarm lest there might be something like a "new rebellion," or at least a resistance to Republican measures of security, and the experience people had had of Johnson made them desirous of seeing a determined man, of undoubted loyalty, put in charge of the Executive Department of the Government. The kind of administration the majority at the North called for at that time might, in fact, have been described by the phrase which the Legitimists invented last year in Paris for theirs—a "gouvernement de combat." For such a government the General of the Army was undoubtedly the fittest man; and General Grant, to whom the machinery of civil administration was a good deal of a mystery, accepted it modestly and cheerfully, as he would have accepted an order to report at New Orleans and take the command of the Department of the Gulf. By the time he came to the end of his first term, however, two changes had come over him, slight in their external manifestations, but still of considerable importance. One was in his estimate of himself as a politician, which had risen greatly, partly under the influence of gross flattery and partly under that of a closer view of the exceeding simplicity of the art of government as practised by party leaders at Washington; for, during the years between 1868 and 1872, it consisted mainly in impetuous semi-military legislation directed against the South, combined with a judicious distribution of offices.

Besides this, he had been made more impervious to the influence of public opinion by the attacks of the newspapers, which had been almost unequalled in the grossness and virulence of their personality. He had begun his political life, too, with the view of the newspaper and its functions which had been from time out of memory prevalent in forts and garrisons—viz., that it was an instrument for giving currency to lies and rumors collected by "runners" of great impudence and entire venality. To newspaper discussions of public affairs military men do not as a general rule pay much attention, and have little or no appreciation of their effect on public opinion, or of their importance as an expression of public opinion. Statutes and general orders they understand, for they see their results; but what is an "editorial" but a string of words, rolled off to-day and to-morrow cast into the oven? This view was confirmed and intensified in General Grant's eyes by the treatment of himself by a portion of the press, and by the success which attended his disregard of it. His second nomination seemed to him to prove positively that the newspapers were of no consequence, and that he really was himself a necessity to the Republican party, if not to the country. His ostentatious disregard of criticism can be explained in this way, and hardly in any other. The retention of Casey and Richardson, and the renomination of "Boss" Shepherd, were the acts of a man who had supreme confidence in his own judgment, and did not believe in the authenticity of any of the usual indications of public feeling. He felt confident that his doings would be approved by the party, for it had just returned him by a tremendous majority, and he felt confident also that nobody need mind what the newspapers said, for had they not covered him with mud without producing the least effect on his reputation?

The third-term question, we have no doubt, he approaches in

somewhat the same state of mind. That is, he has no intention of trying to get a re-election, and he is not trying to get it. He does not think trying is necessary. He got his other two terms without making any effort, and why should he make any effort for this? If, however, Mr. Conkling should tell him that the party needed him for a third term, he would not throw any obstacle in the way of his being nominated, and would not be shaken by "newspaper clamor" against it. About political traditions, as the example of Washington and Jefferson, or the remoter effects on the structure of the Government of the disregard of a great precedent, he knows and cares nothing. When Conkling or Butler or Morton comes to have a talk about politics, they do not say anything about traditions or precedents, or Washington and Jefferson; what they say is, that A had better be put there, and B here, and that C would be useful in such a place, and that with such and such an arrangement of a custom-house, or such and such a disposition of a post-office, they will undertake to carry this or that State by such and such a majority. This sounds businesslike; he understands it; and believes that Conkling and Butler and Morton know what they are talking about, which is more than can be said, he thinks, of the editors who are prating about the danger of a third term. How can a third term be "dangerous" any more than a second? Does not everybody know that the notion that he is going to overturn the Government or change its structure is ridiculous? Then it must be remembered that he has the feeling about Washington and Jefferson which all men of a practical turn, with feeble imaginations and no taste for or habit of reading, have about persons long dead. All periods before his own probably seem nearly equally far off. Of course he does not imagine that Washington was a contemporary of Julius Caesar, but he has probably a vague impression that he flourished about the same time with General Monk, and does not see exactly what his sayings or doings have to do with the affairs of our own day. Still less does he look forward and trouble himself about the probable growth of political tendencies. This, too, is a kind of work which is only done by trained imaginations, and he can hardly be said to have any imagination at all.

The fact is, that he is a man who was very useful at one period and in one sphere, who has been projected into another sphere and another period, presenting a new set of problems with which he is unfamiliar and with which he is not fit to deal; and the manufacture of "outrages" at the South, and the fussy, ostentatious execution of the Enforcement Act in which the Attorney-General is engaged, are simply parts of an attempt to keep alive the belief that the combination of circumstances which made a man like General Grant useful at the head of the Government still exists. It must not be forgotten that he is exactly the kind of President that the political class like, and in trying to keep him in power they are simply upholding a tradition inherited from the Southern politicians before the war. It will be remembered that the policy of the South towards the close of the slavery régime was to let the North have the honor of furnishing a President, provided he was a man who would not meddle, and he was required to surround himself with Southern partisans, and to leave to them the working of the machinery of administration in their own way. A state of things somewhat similar has grown up since the war. The machinery of administration, including the machinery for the selection of officers, has gained enormously in bulk, weight, complexity, and momentum. As has been often pointed out, the election of candidates is becoming more and more of a mere form, the real work of filling places being done by a small set of men sitting in secret, and the whole force of the administrative organization is brought to bear to enforce their decrees; and their decrees are carried out not because the voters are compelled to do what they say, but because the difficulty of doing anything else effectively is all but insuperable. To get up a respectable opposition now to a candidate for the Presidential chair put in the field by the party in power, is an undertaking almost as vast as making a new railroad. It needs the exclusive labor of hundreds of able men, the expenditure of two or three millions of dollars, a

power of organization such as only very few possess, and knowledge of the art of electioneering which can only be acquired by long experience. Moreover, it is the great aim and end of the political class to make this art as much of a mystery as possible, and to throw contempt on the attempts of mere professional men to practise it. They have, in fact, been so far successful that "bolting movements," however respectable morally, and however truly they may be considered the voters' protection against the caucus, become every day more and more ridiculous. People laugh, when they see them, as they would laugh if they saw Denmark declaring war, in ever so righteous a cause, against Germany, or a light-built, consumptive clergyman offering to thrash John Morrissey.

The kind of President that the political class like, therefore, is a man without views or opinions on the ordinary civil problems of the day, who is not likely to embarrass them by forcing troublesome questions on their attention, who will be willing to let them run the machine in their own way, and who yet stands well with the people on some ground or other. General Grant has served their purpose admirably thus far. He has the mental and moral characteristics—the reticence, the want of interest in "questions," the liking for "practical men"—which they need; and then he has at his back a great military reputation, and is singularly successful in the part of a "plain, blunt man," or of a "simple-minded, sagacious man," or of "an honest, well-meaning man, easily led astray, but quick to discover his errors and correct them"—parts which the masses find singularly attractive, and never tire of admiring. That the immense bureaucracy which now surrounds the President, and the wily, skilful chiefs who control it, should like to keep such a man in office is not wonderful; but the inconvenience to the community of having in such an office a person whose temperament and training make him so insensible to currents of public thought and feeling, so ignorant of the weight and direction of the great social and economical forces of our time, so sceptical about the existence of any sort of power which has no material embodiment, and so unfamiliar with the conditions of political progress, has been already plainly demonstrated. One may take this view of the matter, too, without in the least degree detracting from the value of General Grant's services to the country under different circumstances, and it is a view which relieves him from all responsibility for the "third-term pronouncements" of his adherents.

THE EUROPEAN ARMAMENT.

THERE is a bill before the German Parliament which provides for the organization of the Landsturm in battalions, and its addition to the regular force available for active service. It will include all able-bodied men who are not in the army, but the first class will only contain men under the age of forty-two, and the second class, which will contain all others, will probably not be organized at present, and perhaps would only be called out in the direst extremity. If the bill passes—or when it passes, perhaps one might more correctly say—the German army will reach, it is calculated, the enormous number of 1,800,000 men available for service in the field. It is, however, said to be doubtful whether even this force will satisfy the Government. The annual conscription now brings it 132,500 men; the French annual conscription, under the new law, brings in, however, 161,000; and the Russian, 145,000—and it is France and Russia which Germany now fears. All accounts agree that the French are working with great steadiness and success at the reorganization of their army. They will not have their full numbers within reach for some years to come—we believe six or seven—but the force now under arms is going through a process of drill and discipline, the effects of which are visible to the most careless observer in the bearing of both men and officers. Long days of hard work in field manoeuvres, over rough country, have taken the place of the showy parades of Imperial days in the camp at Châlons and Satory. The fanfaron has gone from the officers, and the disorderly swagger from the privates. There has been a great weeding out of the military beaux of the Empire, and, in fact, the

shadow of a great fear has settled on the army no less than on the nation. The question, they see plainly, is no longer whether French influence is what it ought to be, but whether France is to have any assured future among the nations of the earth. The Germans are, of course, not the men to overlook improvement in French morale, or to underrate the addition it makes to French strength.

On the side of Russia the prospect, too, is such as to give real grounds for uneasiness, however slight. It is not that the introduction of a system of general conscription into Russia has added considerably to the sum of her available forces, which makes the situation look grave. The military power of Russia has, as far as numbers are concerned, been ever since the beginning of the century terribly formidable, and, in spite of the emancipation of the serfs and the improvements in the soldier's condition which have been introduced by the present Czar, it is very doubtful whether the material of the Russian army is likely to be for the next fifty years any more valuable than it has been in point of courage, tenacity, and discipline. In fact, it is fairly open to question whether the better education and increased independence and self-respect of the serf will for some time to come exercise the fortifying influence on the military morale which the old soldiers of 1812 and 1854 drew from habits of rigid social subordination and superstitious veneration for the Emperor and Holy Russia. There is a period which may be likened to "slack-water" in social progress, containing the transition from one régime to another when the improvement in men's condition as citizens does not add to but perhaps rather takes away from their value as soldiers. The gains for Russia in our day, in a military point of view, come mainly from the extension of her railway system, which has within the last few years been very great. In 1871 she had 7,750 miles open for traffic, and this year she has 10,363 miles. Down to 1868 she had only 3,227 miles. At the time of the Crimean war she can hardly be said to have had any railroads at all. Now, without railroads her enormous population profited little in anything like offensive warfare. The very vastness of her area was a hindrance to her. The difficulty of concentrating troops and supplies at any point on her frontier rendered her hardly a match for a second-rate power possessing a denser population and better means of transportation. It was this that made it possible for the Allies, in 1854, to bleed her to the point of utter exhaustion at Sevastopol with armies which did not number one-tenth of her own force. But the railroads have wrought and are working vast changes in her control of her own resources. They are giving her some of the advantages which a man of great size and strength gets from training. She now not only has a vast force, but she is fast acquiring the means of massing it rapidly and moving it swiftly on the enemy.

She consequently forms a cloud in the German sky which any sign of *rapprochement* between her and France enlarges seriously; and there have been some signs of this lately. The treatment of Denmark by Germany in the Schleswig-Holstein matter evidently caused a slight shock of displeasure at St. Petersburg. There have been comments on it in Russian newspapers which are not pleasant reading. The Czar's letter, too, to Don Carlos, though a little thing, a mere nod of recognition, was a sign of the times. It might mean that republican Spain was not in as good odor in St. Petersburg as at Berlin, and that possibly Bismarck might not have everything his own way about the Pyrenees. Suppose anything should go wrong in the solution of the various problems now perplexing the European mind, could Germany, with Spain and Italy, make head against France and Russia, and what part would Austria and the Scandinavian countries play in such a conflict?—are questions which the Prussian Chancellor probably often asks himself; and they are not questions over which even the most fortunate man in his position can sleep soundly. It is hardly wonderful if, under the circumstances, Germany should be straining every nerve to increase her military strength. It will not be wonderful if the Government asks Parliament to remove the legal restriction which forbids more than one per cent. of the population to be kept under arms in time of peace.

There is of course something lamentable, from the industrial point of view, in the retention of so many young men on the European Continent, during the very flower of their youth, in an occupation so very unproductive as soldiering. But there is a large and growing school of social philosophers and politicians, in both France and Germany, who do not look at the matter from the industrial point of view simply, and refuse to be concluded by the figures which show the loss caused to the national revenues by these prodigious armaments. They say that the danger which threatens every country on the Continent, and many of them include England in the same category, is social disintegration—the resolution of the nation into incoherent atoms, without common beliefs or common notions of right or duty, and with a deep-seated sense of mutual antagonism with regard to the division of the results of the national labor. In short, the influences by which modern societies were built up, and have down to our own time been held together, are perishing before our eyes, and there is as yet nothing to take their place. Science is destroying the old faith, but offers nothing in its stead that the masses can take hold of; democracy is destroying the old leadership of property or birth or education, but suggests no other sort of leadership which is as yet capable of being used, and the emancipated masses are as yet entirely unable to say what or they want or how they expect to get it. Bismarck is the first of the statesmen attached to the old régime who has distinctly framed a substitute for it, and he is busily engaged in carrying out his idea. He means that the state shall take the place of all the external influences by which human conduct has hitherto been regulated—that it shall take the child from the nurse's arms and educate him in its own way, no matter to what calling he may be destined, that he shall become its soldier as soon as he is able to bear arms, and continue its soldier until he ceases to be able. The crusade against Ultramontanism is simply a vigorous effort to get rid of the most formidable rival in the matter of influence and training with which the state has to contend. The extension of the military system is not simply an additional means of defence against foreign aggression, but a means of giving increased cohesiveness or organization to a society which the commoner tendencies of modern thought are likely, if unchecked, to break up into warring particles. The army is in fact what it proved after the French Revolution—a new state rising out of the debris of the old one, with a more robust morality, more vigorous and imperative sanctions, and a more striking and sharply-defined standard of right and wrong.

THE ST. LOUIS FAIR.

St. Louis, October, 1874.

NOTHING is so odorous to the Western nostril as comparison—as the superlative—especially in the matter of size. We have never known the Western man to boast of anything as being the smallest in the world, but he has a peculiar unction in his manner of rolling enormities under his tongue and impressing his audience with their magnitude. His great hotels, great steamboats, and great cities, however, afford him less satisfaction than his great annual fair at St. Louis, and enormous this certainly is. The beautiful and well-wooded old grounds of Benton Barracks, where, during the war, the Northwestern recruit gained his first experience of hard-tack and military rule and duties, have beaten their sword into a ploughshare, and yearly make the first week in October a delight to the thousands who are attracted by their holiday invitation. As an industrial exhibition, the St. Louis Fair has great merit, and many of its agricultural and mechanical features are well worth investigation; but that which gives it its real value is its thoroughly fair-like character. During the whole of its six days, the finest spectacle is that afforded by the people themselves. Just what it is that attracts them it would be hard to say. Ill-natured critics allege the fast horses; others, the more practical display of the mechanical hall and the cattle-grounds. It would probably be just to say that the chief attraction lies in the fair *as a fair*, and more in the crowds which gather there than in anything that they pretend to come to see.

The exhibition this year achieved in all respects its highest success. Over \$66,000 was taken as gate-money, and many were admitted on members' tickets as exhibitors and attendants. On the great day (Thursday), there were estimated to be 125,000 persons present. This day is made a

general holiday in the city, all places of business are closed, and all who can find transportation seem to flock to the fair grounds. Near the entrance is a huge shed for the depositing of family baskets, and during the entire day family picnic parties occupy the grass in every direction. Throughout the country, for miles around, every farm-house is left in charge of its least efficient man or woman, and the rest flock to the show, filling acres of "wagon yards" on all the approaching roads with their teams. To a stranger, the most interesting feature of the occasion is the character and behavior of the crowd. All the nations which have contributed to the building up of our Western metropolis and the settlement of our Western lands are fully represented. Northerner and Southerner, German, Irish, Dane, Norwegian—all come to the grounds, and blend so freely as to form a really homogeneous mass. During the three days of my attendance, a wordy altercation between a crier of lemonade and a disrespectful young farmer was the only disturbance that I saw, and this merely drew together a few hundred spectators, who found in it a source of amusement. To say that the crowd was orderly would give a wrong impression as to their universal jollity, but there was an entire absence of anything like disorder, and it was especially noticeable that groups of young girls wandered in every direction, in the most unrestrained manner, without meeting the slightest annoyance or impertinence. Whatever else the St. Louis Association may accomplish, it deserves its fullest recognition from the fact that it gives to the people within its reach such unalloyed recreation.

As an agricultural exhibition, the fair is good, but not perfect. There is a sad want of classification; the cattle-stalls are given out in the order of application, and Shorthorns, Devons, Dutch cattle, Jerseys, working oxen, horses, and ponies are jumbled together in the most confused way, so that one wishing to compare the representatives of any class must wander over the whole range, and have his mind confused by the mixing in of half-a-dozen other breeds. Then there is too much dependence on private enterprise for the proper labelling of articles exhibited, in default of which information must be obtained from attendants, who are often not at hand. Agricultural implements were shown in great variety, and most of them in operation, but here the same confusion prevailed—for example, the first and second premium hay-presses, both of which were remarkably good, were in different parts of the ground, and were surrounded by all manner of other machinery. In harvesting implements, for which America has so long been celebrated, this exhibition, like those at Chicago and Cincinnati, was particularly rich; and it is really wonderful to see the perfection that has been attained in the automatic processes for discharging grain from the table of the reaper in gabels ready for binding; there were several in which the gavel is carried to a higher table, to be at once bound and thrown overboard by men riding with the machine, and—a marvel of ingenuity—one where the gavel is actually bound (with wire) and thrown off the machine entirely by mechanical appliances. This machine is said to have missed but twelve sheaves in reaping a field of sixty acres of wheat, and an examination of the very simple parts made this seem quite possible.

Any one from the East must have been struck with the prominence given to apparatus for supplying water to live-stock in the dry prairie regions of the West. There were several ingenious deep-well boring machines in actual operation, and the windmills constituted one of the most conspicuous classes, as was foreshadowed by their frequency in the pastures along the prairie railroads. It is interesting to observe to what a degree the construction of these machines has been simplified during the past twenty years; there are windmills (not very good ones) which will stand any but the most exceptional storms, costing only twenty-five dollars, all complete, and able to raise water enough for the ordinary stock of a farm; and others, also comparatively inexpensive, which require oiling but once a month, which run with a light wind, which only a tornado can destroy, and which require no repairs that an ordinary mechanic cannot give them.

As is usual in Southern fair-grounds, the St. Louis Association has an enormous wooden amphitheatre, where 10,000 persons can sit in the shade and witness the examination of cattle and horses in movement, and under which are restaurant booths, where questionable food is to be had, and where the unquestionably good lager-beer of the Mississippi Valley maintains its uninterrupted flow. One of the "big" items of the exhibition is the fact that the booth-rental for the fair-week amounts to about \$25,000. With the liberal aid of the cotton-brokers of the city, the Association offered \$11,000 in cotton premiums, and this brought out a wonderfully fine display of bales from every cotton-producing State of the West.

As at most American industrial shows, the industry of very fast horses is prominently encouraged, but hardly in this case to an objectionable extent. There is only a half-mile track, and this is at the far end of the exhibition grounds. The racing is pretty constant, running horses and trotting horses alternating rapidly, that there may be little time lost between heats

This year nothing worthy of remark was shown in either class, and the popular interest of the crowd gathered about the course seemed to centre rather on the President and General Sherman than on the horses themselves. Especial praise was bestowed upon our Executive for the grace with which he returned his cigar to his mouth, to free his hand, that he might take off his hat to a friend on the track.

Correspondence.

THE SUBMERSION OF THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: About the 10th or 12th of September, I addressed you a respectful letter, requesting you to explain to me as a subscriber the position assumed by you in an editorial in your paper referred to in my letter, and I enclosed postage stamps for your reply. To this letter you have seen fit to make no reply, either by mail or through your correspondence columns, in which you are accustomed to notice similar communications from subscribers and others.

I might, perhaps, take exception to your discourteous treatment of my letter in remaining silent, since you almost weekly answer briefly in your columns notes and queries of correspondents, but I have learned to expect scant justice from any Northern source to any one living south of Mason and Dixon's line, either in matters of business or courtesy, and I waive this as a matter of taste.

I might fairly infer from your silence in regard to my letter that my construction of your editorial alluded to was the correct one, but since your issue of 22d inst. I am not left to inference on this point, for in your editorial of that date on the elections you state distinctly, "it were better that all the whites and blacks now living south of Mason and Dixon's line were sunk in the sea than go on as we are going now," etc.

This answers my question in regard to the previous article fully and clearly. It shows that you regard the North as the United States, and that you do not consider the lives and liberties of the people of the South, if such consideration conflicts with the wishes or political opinions of the North. You are free to publish such utterances, however they may brutalize popular sentiment, but individuals are as yet also free to refuse their support to the paper which prostitutes its editors to such uses; and no admiration for the ability and apparent sincerity with which it treats questions disconnected with Southern politics can justify a Southern man in giving such support.

My self-respect, at least, will not permit me to accept such a wanton and cruel insult to my State and to the whole South, nor to continue my subscription to a journal which in cold blood devotes half the country to destruction.

I request, therefore, that you will discontinue my paper after the expiration of the year's subscription, ending November 19, 1874. Respectfully,

J. A. PEARCE.

CHESTERTOWN, KENT CO., MD., Oct. 26, 1874.

[We can only say, in reply to the above, that we have no recollection of ever having received or seen Mr. Pearce's first letter, but we must add that we receive a great many letters asking questions on various subjects, of which we take no notice, sometimes for want of space, at others because the questions are foolish or trifling. As regards our expression of willingness to have the Southern whites and blacks sunk in the sea sooner than have free government on this continent destroyed, which has given Mr. Pearce so much annoyance, our selection of Southerners for this fearful doom was due simply to the fact that the alterations in the structure of the government which we see and deplore are caused by Southern troubles, and not to any peculiar indifference on our part to the fate of the men, women, and children south of Mason and Dixon's line. The best proof of this we can offer is to promise that we will set apart for wholesale destruction, in the contingency aforesaid, the population of any other portion of the country Mr. Pearce or his representatives may select, not excepting the city of New York. We are willing to leave the matter entirely to his discretion; but if he would allow us to exert any influence on his choice, we would suggest Essex County, Mass., as a good Northern locality for the operation of our tidal wave. At the same time, if he will continue his paper for another year, we pledge ourselves not to let the water in on any district either North or South without giving him a full

hearing, and without permitting the removal of all sick persons and young children.—ED. NATION.]

IGNORANT VOTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Believing with you that the community ought to ask of those demanding female suffrage, "What use would be made of the power if we gave it?" I wish to call the attention of your readers to some important statistics in the last census. In 1870, there were 748,976 white men unable to read or write, and 1,145,718 white women. The whole number of illiterates over twenty-one, both white and colored, was 1,551,213 men and 2,092,050 women. In New York, female suffrage would have added 121,667 ignorant voters to the 77,160 already possessed by your State, and in Pennsylvania 123,733 to the 67,110 found there in 1870, thus raising the illiterate vote in each State to nearly 200,000, and almost trebling it, while only doubling the entire number of possible voters. The percentages of illiterate to the whole number of their sex over twenty-one were in New York 7 to 10, but in Pennsylvania 7½ to 14¼. In Florida, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, a little more than half the men were illiterate, but almost three-fifths of the women. In Arizona, also, the proportion was 56 per cent. among the women, but less than 22 per cent. among the men, while in New Mexico the male percentage was but 64 and the female 90. The latter cases are extreme and crucial ones, as the advocates of the great Sixteenth Amendment proposed extending its benefits to every Territory as well as every State. So large a part of our political corruption is due to the ignorance of the voters, that it is hard to see how female suffrage, which would increase that ignorance so immensely and so disproportionately, would purify politics.

These facts are made much worse on account of the well-known difference between men and women, of equal culture otherwise, in degree of interest in politics. A striking proof of this was furnished me at the State University of Wisconsin, where I heard from the professors giving instruction about the Constitution of the United States and the History of Political Institutions, that the young men were on the average much more interested and proficient in these branches than the young ladies, though the latter were their equals in other studies. At my own visits to these recitations I was much struck with the difference between the eager faces of the young men and the jaded ones of the painfully toilsome or reprehensibly inattentive girls.

In view, however, of the plainly increasing interest of women in politics, as well as of the fact that in 1870 the number of male and female illiterates between ten and twenty-one was substantially equal, I believe that the time will come when female suffrage will be not only safe but beneficial, as I think that the franchise will never be used by men with sufficient zeal and care to secure good government until it is shared by women. But at present any decrease of the average of both special and general fitness to vote would be extremely dangerous. The fact that we have more than a million and a half of ignorant male voters is a sufficient reason for refusing to let in more than two millions more of ignorant female ones. The first duty of the reformer is not to increase the quantity of our voters, but to improve their quality.

F. M. HOLLAND.

BARABOO, WISCONSIN, October 18, 1874.

JUSTIFICATION OF "SCIENTIST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Academy* of Sept. 19, Mr. Alexander Ellis, F.R.S., has arraigned the term *scientist* as "American," and as an "American barbaric trisyllable."

If an Englishman takes a dislike to an expression of recent origin, he is pretty certain to pronounce it off-hand an Americanism. There is no surer way than this to prepossess his countrymen against it; and, indeed, to stigmatize it as transatlantic, if not the strongest argument he can bring forward for condemning it, at least powerfully assists the acceptance of any other arguments which he may have to produce. Coleridge and Southey used phrases like *is being built* as long ago as 1795; and Coleridge printed *reliable* in 1800. Both *is being built* and *reliable* have, however, been denounced, over here, as American inventions; and Archbishop Trench once unhesitatingly called the old Scotticism *starvation* "an Americanism." These are specimens of groundless assertion; and it is to be proved that *scientist* had its birth on our side of the Atlantic. Fifteen years ago I made a note of it, as occurring in an English publication, where first I saw it. If not originally English, at all events it was very soon naturalized in Great Britain. Possibly it may have come from France.

Mr. Ellis, assuming that *scientist* was based on the factitious *scient*, from

sciens, speaks of "its barbarity"; and, as the substantive *scient* should, on etymological considerations, mean "man of science," "scientific man," he allows to *scientist* no other proper sense than that of "adherent to sciences." *Scientist* he would retain, with the signification just mentioned; but *scient* he proposes in place of *scientist* as used at present.

Only by insisting that it must be based on *scient*, can *scientist*, in its current acceptation, be viewed as "barbaric." But it can perfectly well be formed from *scientia* + *-ist*. In welding these elements together, the *a* of *scientia* is rejected, and the final *i* of the residual *scienti* melts into the *i* of *ist*; the result being *scientist*. Compare *deist*, from *dei* (*deus*); *eulogize* and *eulogist*, from *eulogia*, *eulogy*; *theorize* and *theorist*, from *theoria*, *theory*; and *parodist*, from *parodia*, *parody*. Similarly, we have *aurist* from *auris*; *dentist*, from *dentis* (*dens*); *florist*, from *floris* (*flos*); *jurist*, from *juris* (*ius*); *oculist*, from *oculi* (*oculus*), etc., etc. The disappearance of a single final letter from the end of a leading elemental word when *-ist* is added, is seen in *diarist*, *fabulist*, *galvanist*, *mechanist*, *papist*, and often elsewhere.

As *scientist* may be educed as here stated, so, if a Romish theologian wished to coin a word signifying "advocate of indulgences," he would proceed quite legitimately in striking out *indulgentist* from *indulgentia*, to match his *indulgential*; and such terms as *experientist* and *patientist* might, if we needed them, be formed with perfect etymological propriety, from *experientia* and *patientia*; and so *omniscientist*, *prescientist*, and *nescientist*.

We have every reason, then, to rest satisfied with *scientist*, whoever its originator may have been. Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, WICKHAM MARKET, OCT. 10, 1874.

CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Smith's 'Dictionary of the Bible,' under the title "Lachish," speaks of certain sculptures found at Kouyunjik which bore the inscription: "Sennacherib, the mighty king, king of the country of Assyria, sitting on the throne of judgment before (or at the entrance of) the city of Lachish (Lakhish). I give permission for its slaughter." The American editor has the same without comment. On the walls of the Nineveh Cabinet at Amherst College, Mass., is a colossal fresco picture of Sennacherib seated on his throne, and underneath it is the Assyrian text of this inscription in immense cuneiform characters. This is not accompanied by any translation. Some of the characters are crowded, owing to the fact that the painter did not know the language, and consequently the reader has in two cases at least to separate and in one to unite them before he can translate the inscription. Layard's 'Nineveh and Babylon' gives the text of this inscription and the translation given above, and the same are to be found in several other works. That this scene and inscription belong to the history of the siege and capture of Lachish there can be no reasonable doubt, and attention is called to the matter now for the purpose of correcting the translation. The inscription reads as follows: Sin-ah-erib sar kissati sar mat assur ina kussi ni-mi-di u-sib-va sal-la-at er la-ki-su ma-ha-ar-su i-ti-ik. And the translation is: "Sennacherib, king of nations, king of the country of Assyria, sits upon a lofty throne and receives before him the spoil of the city of Lachish." It will be seen that the words "judgment," "before or at the entrance of the city," and "I give permission for its slaughter," are no part of the original inscription at all. The study of the Assyrian cuneiform has made such progress within a few years past that scholars are able now to give rigidly literal translations of inscriptions which ten years ago could only be rendered imperfectly. Only so recently as 1869 Dr. Oppert rendered *kussu ni-mi-di* by "throne of judgment." But the word is a simple one, and the meaning clear. The word is an adjective from the root *ma-ad*, "to be much"; passive, *made great* or *lofty*. The copies of inscriptions which Mr. Layard has given need greatly to be revised, for, being ignorant of the language, he has often crowded together characters which should be separated, and separated others which should be united.

The above notes may be of service to those who use Smith's 'Dictionary of the Bible,' and who care at all for the exact statement which any given inscription may contain.

SELAH MERRILL.

ANDOVER, MASS., OCT. 12, 1874.

Notes.

A PRIVATE circular, bearing the signatures of Wm. Lloyd Garrison, Wendell Phillips, Samuel May, and Gerrit Smith, calls attention to the "May Collection" of books and pamphlets relating to slavery and the anti-

slavery movement in this country in the library of Cornell University. Though the original collection has received important accessions, and is already the best and largest of its kind in the United States, it still lacks many of the rarer publications, long since out of print. "It is especially deficient in the anti-slavery publications which emanated from Philadelphia, and it also lacks a file of the *Liberator* and other anti-slavery journals, the early volumes of which are now very difficult to obtain."—An edition of Macaulay's Essays in one volume, paper covers and uncut, is announced by Albert Mason, of this city. It will be sold at the low price of \$1 50.—A recent Parliamentary Return on the South Kensington Museum shows the total cost of that institution to have been six millions of dollars (£1,191,709 17s. 4d.) Four millions and a half have been expended for building, administration, etc., and a million and a half (nearly) in the purchase of the collections.—Mr. F. B. Patterson, 32 Cedar Street, has reproduced the photograph of a mask of Milton, taken from life, which is prefixed to Sotheby's 'Ramblings in the Elucidation of the Autograph of Milton' (London, 1861). The original cast is preserved in Trinity College Library, Cambridge, and is thought to have been made about the year 1654, at which date the poet had become almost or wholly sightless. This lends additional interest to the mask and to the photograph. Mr. Patterson's copy, being once removed from the plaster, naturally loses something in delicacy of detail, yet not much. The face and head are striking beyond those of any portrait we have ever seen of Milton, and forcible in the extreme.—G. P. Putnam's Sons announce, what should be good news to many readers, that they have in preparation a handy series of 'German Classics for American Students.' The size will be 16mo. Mr. James Morgan Hart is to edit the series, with notes critical and philological.—Henry Holt & Co. are preparing to issue this month Mill's 'Posthumous Essays on Religion.'—That admirable publication, 'Die Gesetzgebung des Deutschen Reiches,' deals in its last two issues with the laws regulating the German mint (subject concluded) and the Imperial press-law of May 7, 1874. We may remind our readers that this work reproduces the text of every important law of the Empire (since 1873), with a commentary connecting it with previous legislation of the same order, and giving as further aids to the understanding of it the contemporaneous construction in the debates upon it, the amendments offered, etc., etc. Better employment than this for jurists like Dr. Ernst Bezold, Dr. von Holtzendorff, and their associates it would be hard to discover, and we commend the example, first set in Bavaria, to the heads of the legal profession in the United States and in the several States.—Trübner & Co.'s 'Catalogue of Choice, Rare, and Curious Books,' No. 8, is of especial interest to students of the aboriginal languages of America.—The Orange (N. J.) *Journal* thinks the *Nation* "ought not to withhold just praise" from President Grant for his recent appointment of Mr. J. M. Thacher as Commissioner of Patents, in which "the spirit of the civil-service reform was fully conformed to." Mr. Thacher has been assistant examiner, principal examiner, judge of appeals, and assistant commissioner. His decisions, says the *Journal*, "have shown earnest, painstaking enquiry into the merits of the cases before him and a close knowledge of law." We regret to record the death, on October 23, of Mr. William A. Wheeler, Assistant Superintendent of the Boston Public Library, and well-known for his lexicographical labors. He was formerly employed in the preparation and revision of our two rival dictionaries, passing from Worcester to Webster; edited an American edition of Hole's 'Brief Biographical Dictionary,' a 'Dickens Dictionary,' and other works; and was engaged, when attacked by his last illness, upon a 'Dictionary of Shaksperian Reference.' In compiling the catalogues of the library, his services were constant and of great value. He had not completed his thirty-ninth year.

—The 'American Educational Annual,' of which we have received the first volume, for 1875, from J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., is well planned and sufficiently well executed to deserve commendation, even if it falls a little short of the promise of its sub-title: "A cyclopaedia or reference book for all matters pertaining to education." Taking "education" in the restricted sense in which it was here intended to be used, we find, indeed, in this volume a large amount of valuable information. We cannot indicate all the contents; what is freshest of them is an account of the national lavd-grants for educational purposes, and brief sketches of the history and present organization of the school systems of the several States—very convenient for comparison. The Peabody Educational Fund, the National Bureau of Education, the educational bearing of the Civil-Rights Bill, educational gatherings during 1874, are some of the other topics, and there is much statistical matter derived from the best sources. As "pertaining to education" in the broad sense we must, we suppose, reckon the summary review of geographical and scientific discoveries during 1873 and 1874 inserted between Territorial School Systems and the Peabody Fund; and the pedagogic lore tucked away in the blank spaces at the end of the longer articles,

much of which could better have been dispensed with. The editor does not pronounce in favor of a national university, but he has very decided views as to the grant by which the so-called agricultural colleges were called into being: "It is safe to say, not merely that this is the most profitable disposition that the United States has ever yet made of any equal portion of its public lands, but that no government in the world can point to an educational trust that has been, on the whole, administered with more wisdom and fidelity, or with larger results, than this." The 'Annual' concludes with lists of educational journals and leading college periodicals in the United States; of eminent educators deceased during 1873 and 1874, arranged chronologically; and of American school-books published during 1874, classified, and with prices annexed.

—The late convention of college presidents at Hanover, N. H., agreed, it is said, that the evils of inter-collegiate boat-racing were more than balanced by the good that came of it, and that it had better not be interfered with. This conclusion will appear all the sounder if we consider the gradual enlargement of the college contests, so that they promise shortly to cover the whole field of athletic encounter, and to make of each occasion a genuine Olympic. Beginning with a simple regatta, the next stage witnessed the introduction of base-ball and foot-ball; Mr. Bennett's prize for running added still another element; and now there is no predicting how many forms of muscular rivalry will not start up at succeeding Saratoga meetings. The last Harvard *Advocate* reports the first field-meeting of the new Athletic Association of that university, the preparation for which is thus described: "A quarter-mile track, quite smooth but rather soft, had been laid out, surrounded by a rope; while a stouter rope, stretched around the entire field, with the aid of six policemen kept the *populus* (muckers) at a proper distance. Directly opposite the spectators' seats, a judges' stand was placed, while in the centre of the field were the hurdles and jumping-poles, with a hundred-yard track marked out between them." The exercises which followed were a hundred-yard dash, by eleven contestants, very nearly matched; a running high jump—highest, 4 ft. 8 in.; a running long jump—furthest, 15 ft. 8½ in.; a one-mile running race, won in 5.41¾; a hurdle-race of 100 yards, over eight 3 ft. 6 in. hurdles, won in 13½ seconds; a two-mile run, in which much science was displayed, won in 12.4½; a three-mile walk, in 29¾; a half-mile run, in 2.52½; besides a three-legged race, so-called. Base-ball also had a place in the programme, the winner throwing it 306 feet. We observe that these performances have already excited the emulation of Amherst, and we cannot doubt that Harvard's example will be promptly imitated by most of the colleges.

—Prof. von Holst, whose 'Verfassung und Demokratie der Vereinigten Staaten' we reviewed a few months ago, has published in pamphlet form his address delivered upon assuming the chair of Professor of History at Freiburg; the subject of this, too, is taken from American history, being the administration of Andrew Jackson in its relation to the development of democracy in this country. He has recognized with clear insight the importance of this administration, and its character as a turning-point in our history. The essay is indeed an expansion and illustration of this sentence in the opening paragraph: "With John Quincy Adams the last statesman for a long time departed from the White House, and the great masses and the professional politicians took possession of it." Andrew Jackson, as he shows, was not the cause of this revolution; he furnished but the will and the hand to accomplish [a work that was all ready to be accomplished—"he merely raised the dam, against which the flood had long beaten." The analysis of the character of Jackson, and the series of acts by which he carried through this disastrous change in the spirit of the government, is masterly. No less clearly, however, than the arrogance and stubbornness of the President, are depicted the fatuity, narrow-mindedness, and lack of insight of the opposition. And while we are told in plain words that we have ever since this time been upon "a down-hill road, on which turning is ever hard, and in the best of cases can be only very gradual," we are also encouraged by the judgment of this sagacious observer, that the most fatal disease of a free state—contempt for politics and politicians—is far less developed among us than those "superficially informed commonly believe." In the introductory remarks Dr. von Holst takes occasion to disclaim the unfavorable view which he finds has been attributed to him, and to regret that the present work will, from the nature of its subject, be likely to confirm this erroneous impression. The pamphlet is published by Julius Buddens of Düsseldorf, and is to be had of Mr. E. Ste'ger, in this city.

We were right, it appears, in our conjecture last week as to the nature of the catalogue that M. Bonnange proposes as the best for growing collections. It is the card catalogue already adopted by many excellent libraries. But M. Bonnange's invention is peculiar. His cards are in two parts; the upper, containing the inscription, is connected with the base by a cloth

joint. A hole in the foot of the base of the card admits an endless screw, on which is a nut of the size of the compartment in which the base of the card rests; as the screw revolves, the cards fall apart or are pressed together. In M. Bonnange's plan, the cards may be shut up in drawers, or, as in the diagram which he publishes with his pamphlet, be arranged on an inclined plane of the height of a standing desk, and in this position, besides being more likely to have a sufficiency of light, which is sometimes not the case with cards in drawers, they may, by reason of their joint, be turned from right to left or the reverse, like the pages of a book, and so, very economically, be written on both sides. By a different disposition of them, they might be made to move up and down. This, the joint arrangement, is the distinctive point of M. Bonnange's plan. M. Littré praises highly the system of card catalogues in general, and calls M. Bonnange's invention ingenious.

—In the *Art Journal* for October Mr. J. Beavington Atkinson gives an interesting account of the preparations at Florence for the coming centenary of Michael Angelo. The proper date should be March, 1875, but the Italian weather at that season is apt to be stormy, and the middle of May has accordingly been selected for the festival. The painter's house (Casa Buonarroti), with its personal relics and its more or less authentic art remains, will furnish a sort of pivot to the celebration. Mr. Atkinson is disposed to discredit the pictorial drawings there preserved as Michael Angelo's, but he had the privilege of examining a portfolio of unquestionable architectural drawings, which as curiosities might be thought entitled to take precedence of the more familiar designs. They consist of plans for the never-finished façade of the Church of San Lorenzo; designs for fortifications, and for river embankments, and for various building details, such as windows, cornices, columns, capitals, etc. They are, "for the most part, the reverse of thorough; they are seldom made to scale; a workman could with difficulty carry them out"; they have, in short, the appearance of hasty memoranda. Mr. Atkinson surmises that the detailed drawings necessary for the construction of St. Peter's may still exist among the archives of the Vatican; but is it at all known how far the practice of that age approached our own in the use of such drawings? The literary remains in the Casa Buonarroti are to be published for the centenary. They consist of poems, which have already seen the light, and of two quarto volumes of letters, some two hundred in number, to which access has hitherto been denied to all the biographers of Michael Angelo. His correspondence with Vittoria Colonna is embraced in them. "By the aid of these and other like autographic data, we shall now, it is said, be made acquainted with every month of the life of Michael Angelo, from the hour when he first could write, down to the year of his death." Together with them will be printed the series of letters in the possession of the British Museum. A new life of Buonarroti, by Signor Aurelio Gotti, Director of the Uffizi Gallery, which is already under way, is to be translated into English, as we learn from the *Academy*, by Mr. Charles Heath Wilson.

—The same number of the *Art Journal* has another article—the third or fourth—by Mr. G. A. Simcox, on "The Transformation of the British Face." The writer gets considerably nearer to his subject than he has yet done, and attempts a characterization of the British face during the Tudor period. It is a rudimentary modern face, he says, offering many points of resemblance to the face of to-day, but the unlikeness is equally real and obvious, if not so palpable. If at a fancy ball everybody should appear in a Tudor costume, the illusion would not be so great but that we should feel the contrast at once—more quickly in the case of the women, perhaps, than in that of the men: "there would be a type, without even an Elizabethan parallel, the familiar type of a cultivated mediocrity, which has inherited enough refinement to compensate the lack of personal distinction; and this not only would be found to assert itself separately, but to leaven the types which strike us by their resemblance to the past." Coming down to particulars, Mr. Simcox defines the distinction between the two faces in these terms: "Perhaps the most general description that can be given is, that what tells in the Tudor face is the modelling of masses, and what tells in the modern face is the modelling of details. The number of planes is much greater, and the angles are softened away in proportion." Holbein placed his sitters in broad, unshadowed daylight, the distribution of the features being the fact to be brought out in his portraits. Modern painters since Vandyke have affected half-lights to reveal the shades of the more delicately moulded face. More definitely still: "There are scarcely any faces of Henry VIII.'s reign where the modelling of the eye-socket is individual; there are not many in which the cheeks are not a characteristic; there are many in which no feature is so characteristic as the cheek. In the modern face all these conditions are reversed." It is a general trait of the former period "that we usually find the fold of the lower eyelid more strongly marked than the fold of the upper, whereas in our own days the fold of the lower eyelid is hardly ever marked

in health, except among hard drinkers"—and our ancestors of the sixteenth century might be classed as such, seeing that they had to use ale and wine not only as men do nowadays but where we use tea, coffee, and tobacco in their stead. Mr. Simeon says that for the distinction just cited dependence must not be placed on engravings, especially on late ones. His only illustration, however, is a wood-cut, a facsimile of an older one. It is a pity he does not give more illustrations, and that he does not use the autotype process for reproducing original portraits from the canvas.

—In the *Lancet* for October 10, Dr. J. Henry Bennet has some observations on sea-sickness which are likely to interest unprofessional readers. The nervous theory of this disease—which refers it to the general unsettledness of things—is in very many cases, he remarks, inapplicable. He maintains that the presence of food in the stomach, the perturbations acting as an irritant, is often the main cause of difficulty. He recommends a course which he says has very often, though not always, prevented illness in a short passage or proved a good preparation for an extended voyage. A hearty meal should be eaten four or five hours before embarking. An hour or two before sailing, one may take some very strong coffee or tea, or spirits and water, but no milk or other food. On board, repose should be enjoined, the recumbent position being the best; and nothing solid or fluid should be taken for twelve hours, and then only a little. The taking of food should be gradual, according to desire, that the stomach may become familiar with its instability. This remedy has all the advantages of simplicity. We may add that Dr. Bennet has crossed the Channel some thirty or forty times, and made scores of trips on the Mediterranean, and, though having no fear of the sea, succumbs himself in very bad weather. He has, at all events, the right to be heard.

—A good illustration of the influence on modes of investigation of natural phenomena exerted by the Darwinian theory, is to be found in *Nature* (issue of October 8). In the entertaining department of "Letters to the Editor," the subject of the migration of birds had been broached, but not much progress had been made in discussing it, nor was any hint given of a systematic enquiry which might lead to a discovery of the causes of it. Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace now comes forward, and, bringing the doctrine of the "survival of the fittest" to bear upon the subject, lights it up, it must be confessed, a good deal. He first supposes a limited area within which only can breeding be safely accomplished by any given species of migratory bird, and which for the greater part of the rest of the year does not furnish sufficient food. Neglect to leave this area at the proper time, or to leave the area of abundant food at the proper time, tends, of course, to the extinction of the species. The habit of migration which we find so difficult of explanation as to end by calling it an instinct, Mr. Wallace regards as hereditary, and as having arisen in consequence of a gradual divergence from one another of the breeding and feeding areas, which in the beginning, and for some remote ancestor of the existing species, were coincident. Geologic and climatic changes readily account for such a divergence. Mr. Wallace thinks that somewhere on the globe every gradation still exists, and that "when the natural history of a sufficient number of species in all parts of the world is thoroughly worked out, we may find every link between species which never leave a restricted area in which they breed and live the whole year round, and those other cases in which the two areas are absolutely separated." This holds out a prospect of no little labor, but with the advantage of a perfectly definite view; and the European investigator must already, Mr. Wallace remarks, have ample materials for an instructive work on the subject. In regard to the means which birds have of determining the exact time at which to migrate year by year, he makes the acute suggestion that they may be found in "those climatal changes which most affect the particular species"—e.g., the change of color or the fall of certain leaves; the change to the pupa state of certain insects; prevalent winds or rains; or even the decreased temperature of the earth or water.

—Mr. Merrill is right, in his letter on "Cuneiform Inscriptions" which we print on another page, in saying that Layard's volume of inscriptions needs to be revised. The Lachish inscription, however, is not found in that volume, but is excellently given in fac-simile on one of the plates of Layard's 'Monuments of Nineveh.' In his 'Babylon and Nineveh' it is given with an error or two; and we presume it is from this popular and accessible volume that the artist of Amherst College painted the fresco which Mr. Merrill has discovered. This inscription is also correctly given in Rawlinson's 'Historical Inscriptions of Western Asia,' so that a corrected form is not needed. Our correspondent, who has adopted Schrader's version of two years ago, has certainly given an approximately correct translation. It is substantially the same as that of Norris or of Oppert, and the retention of so incorrect a translation of not "ten" but over twenty years ago in Smith's 'Dictionary' is not creditable. We think Mr. Merrill considerably overrates the

minute accuracy with which we can now translate the cuneiform Assyrian. It is by no means sure that in this inscription *itik* has the sense of "receives." A more natural translation than that of Schrader is that of Norris, "The spoil of the city of Lachish passes before him." Then the word *nimidi* (or *ninedi*) is by no means clear. Schrader, who has probably led our correspondent astray, suggests the derivation from *ma'ad*, to be great, but this root in Assyrian as in Hebrew never refers to size, height, but to quantity, strong, much, exceedingly, and could hardly produce a derivative meaning high, for which we have the familiar Assyrian word *illu*. Besides, the prefix *n* by no means generally gives the "passive" sense, nor could it from the intransitive *ma'ad* give a passive *nimedi*, any more than *nimegi*, mysterious, can be passive from a root *emig*, to be deep. The connection in this and other passages makes it quite as likely that its root is *môt* or *ma'ad*, to move, to shake, and that it indicates the movable throne or sedan carried by the kings on their journeys. Oppert, by the way, does not translate the word "judgment" but "justice," as if from *amat*, truth. We have dwelt on this matter only to remind our enthusiastic correspondent that while the grammatical principles of Assyrian are reasonably assured, and the general sense of any connected passage certain, verbal accuracy is by no means yet attainable.

LIVES OF CHIEF-JUSTICE CHASE.*

It has been frequently observed among those who were interested in the war for the suppression of the rebellion, that the actual time elapsed since the year 1865 measures very poorly the immense gulf which seems to separate us from the end of the war. No doubt the chief reason for this is the number of important social and political events which have occurred in the last ten years, and among these changes none are more significant than the complete substitution in all the more prominent public stations of one set of men for another. When we reflect that Lincoln, Seward, Sumner, Chase, Stanton, and Fessenden are all dead, that the leaders who have succeeded them in the management of their party are men who ten years ago were unknown outside of small local political circles; and that the old Democratic leaders are almost as dead as if they were in their graves, so completely have they given way to new men, we do not need even to call to our aid the recollection of the destruction of slavery or the rise of the Grangers to make real the hiatus between the United States of 1865 and of 1874. There is nothing which so preserves the continuity of social affairs as the possibility of connecting the past with the present by the aid of the prominent political characters which belong to two periods, and end by wisely administering what they began by reforming. But on our present canvas we look in vain for these figures. In reading these lives of Chief-Justice Chase, the subject seems one belonging to a time so far past that we can hardly bring ourselves to believe that it is less than two years since he died.

During the life of Chase, views widely different were taken of his character and aims; to some persons he appeared as a cold, ambitious, selfish man, bent on obtaining power for himself at whatever cost, and using the great issues in which he became involved for this object. To the old Abolitionists he seemed cold, because he belonged to that school of politicians who, while anti-slavery leaders, made it their first principle to do nothing outside the law and the Constitution—who believed that slavery might be restricted to the existing slave territory; that it might be kept out of the Territories; that the slave-owners could not rightfully require the free States to assist them in catching runaways; and that a new party ought to and must be formed for the furtherance of these ideas, but who would not hear a word against the Constitution or against the Union of the States. It is clear enough now that both abolitionists and anti-slavery politicians of Chase's school had their part to play in the struggle which ended in the Emancipation Proclamation; that if the abolitionists had not supplied a motive power by exhortation, and denunciation, and self-sacrifice, and martyrdom, the anti-slavery party, if formed at all, would have been much slower in forming; while, if we can suppose the abolitionists, instead of encouraging the faint-hearted and driving up the timid, to have got possession of the Government and undertaken to get rid of slavery extra-constitutionally, they would have developed against themselves the very same Union feeling which, as matters turned out, proved their most substantial means of support. Not that Chase himself needed to be either frightened or encouraged. He occupied from the beginning of his career a position entirely independent, and pursued the plan marked out for himself with consistency. Springing as he did from a New

* 'An Account of the Private Life and Public Services of Salmon Portland Chase. By Robert B. Warden.' Cincinnati: W. L. Baldwin & Co. 1874.

* 'The Life and Public Services of Salmon Portland Chase. United States Senator and Governor of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury, and Chief-Justice of the United States. By J. W. Shuckers. To which is added the Eulogy on Mr. Chase delivered by William M. Evarts before the Alumni of Dartmouth College, June 24, 1874.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

England family, he was brought up with a detestation of slavery, and the first political act of his life of which we find any mention in these volumes, is that of his signing a petition to Congress praying for the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade in the District of Columbia, and his first important appearance in court was in the case of a fugitive slave. From that day slavery had no more dangerous and skilful enemy than he.

Mr. Chase's character has been considered in some quarters very subtle and incomprehensible, and Mr. Warden throws an air of great mystery over it by promising the public, in the course of his narrative of the life of the Chief-Justice, what he calls "revelations" of extraordinary interest. We must say, however, that after examining these disclosures with some care we cannot find anything very new or startling in them. There were three turning-points in Mr. Chase's life—the first, when he was elected senator from Ohio; the second, during his administration of the Treasury; and the third, when the legal-tender cases came before him for decision—on some one of which we should have expected new light to be thrown if Mr. Chase's character really was the enigma it is asserted to have been. As to the first of these, Mr. Warden himself seems almost oppressed with the magnitude of the event and the importance of correctly understanding the causes which led to it; for he says (p. 325): "It must be evident enough that very close attention should be given to the question whether he, whose life we study, made his way to the Senate by a crime only less appalling than the crime of John Wilkes Booth when he made his way to the 'box of state' in Ford's Theatre, and slew the unsuspecting President of the United States." From Mr. Warden's confused account of what took place, it may be gathered that in his opinion there is not room for an historical parallel between the late Chief-Justice and the assassin of Lincoln. In Mr. Shuckers's volume we find a connected history of the election. Before stating it here, however, let us say that Mr. Warden's twenty-second chapter, concerning this senatorial campaign, is an admirable specimen of his confused manner; containing as it does some sixteen pages, and relating to one of the most interesting and much-disputed points in Chase's life, it was certainly not too much to expect it to be intelligible. But we defy any one to make out, without reference to Mr. Shuckers's book, even what charges against Chase were founded on his election. The whole chapter is a tangled mass of names, the reader being allowed to infer the succession of events and the relations of the persons for himself.

There were as a matter of fact two separate questions involved, one the action of Chase as to the gerrymandering of Hamilton County by the Whigs, and the other the bargain by which the Free-soilers and Democrats united their forces to obtain control of the Ohio Legislature. For a long period, Hamilton County had constituted a single election district, entitled to two senators and five representatives, and the Democrats controlled the election of all. At the session of the Ohio Legislature of 1847-8, however, the Whigs gerrymandered the county, so as to secure the election of one Whig senator and two Whig representatives in a fraction of the county. Against this division the Democrats protested as being unconstitutional, and "Mr. Chase, immediately upon the passage of the act—and long before his election to the United States Senate was possible or even thought of—stated his emphatic conviction that it was unconstitutional." In 1848, two representatives were to be elected from Hamilton County, and in December of that year there appeared before the legislature two contending delegations: Messrs. Pugh and Pierce, Democrats, and Messrs. Spencer and Runyon, Whigs. The Democrats were admitted, and their admission had nothing whatever, as we understand the matter, to do with the coalition afterwards formed, for the admission of Messrs. Pugh and Pierce was determined upon before the coalition took place. The legislature at this time was peculiarly constituted. Two independent Free-soilers, Morse and Townsend, refused to consider themselves bound by the action of the Free-soil caucus held on the meeting of the Legislature. This they apparently had a perfect right to do, as they had been elected on independent tickets, in opposition to the candidates of both Whigs and Democrats. The rest of the Free-soilers were Whigs, and had been elected by Whig votes. The legislature was evenly divided between Old-line Democrats on the one side, and Old-line Whigs united with the Whig Free-soilers on the other. Between the two Messrs. Morse and Townsend held the balance of power. The only political measures they cared to carry, or had been elected to carry, were the repeal of the Ohio "black laws" and the election of a Free-soil senator. They therefore made overtures to the Whigs and Democrats, promising substantially to act in certain matters of minor importance which were likely to arise (and on which there does not seem to have been any division of principle) with either of the two old parties which would accept their terms. The Whigs declined; the Democrats accepted. The "black laws" were repealed and Chase went to the Senate. Now, this arrangement—something, by the way, like that which procured Mr.

Sumner his seat—may or may not reflect credit on the parties concerned; but a great deal of what is nowadays said about vote-bartering, and many of the denunciations levelled against vote-barterers, do not apply to such coalitions as this. When a new party rises into power, holding an evenly divided balance between two old ones, it must be by arrangements and compromises of this sort that the machinery of the Government is kept working. What we should have liked to see discussed in these two volumes would have been the way in which Mr. Chase behaved through it all. All the evidence that we have points to an honorable attitude throughout, and as the facts stand now any one who accuses Chase of underhanded or corrupt behavior for the purpose of securing his election, will probably have to include in his denunciation almost all the Free-soilers of the day, who, by the evenly balanced division of the old Democrats and Whigs, secured for themselves and their party a political opening.

On Mr. Chase's administration of the Treasury, and his connection with the legal-tender cases, we get nothing very new from Mr. Shuckers or Mr. Warden. That he should, as Chief-Justice, have reversed his own action as Secretary of the Treasury, or rather that as Secretary of the Treasury he should have permitted an act which as Chief-Justice he was compelled to pronounce unconstitutional, will always remain the great blemish on his career. That he agreed to the manufacture of legal-tender by the Government with great reluctance, and against his better judgment, is no secret. In considering this part of his life, however, scanty notice has been taken of the difficulties which beset his path. Thrust into the Treasury as he was by circumstances over which he had little control (a purely political bureau would have been by far the most natural one for him to have held), he was obliged to administer the finances of the country at a time which would have taxed the intellect of the greatest finance minister severely. Mr. Chase knew nothing about finance, taxation, or economics, beyond the knowledge possessed by any well-read man of his day, and in reading over again now the mere dry statistics of what he did, the system he created and organized, and the vast sums of money which, from month to month and from year to year, he managed to extract from his always exhausted coffers, the reader stands aghast at the gigantic nature of the task he undertook and executed, and feels less inclined to ask whether this or that means selected was right, than to wonder how it was done at all. Even the appearance on the scene of Mr. Jay Cooke, as a sort of *deus ex machina*, does not explain it.

It is very noticeable that neither Mr. Shuckers nor Mr. Warden succeeds in presenting to the mind of the reader any distinct view of the private life of Mr. Chase. The former, indeed, does not try. His book is little more than a skeleton narrative of the public career of his subject. But with Mr. Warden the case is different. He seems throughout to have been impressed with the necessity of clearing up all unsettled points about Mr. Chase, and, as may be inferred from the reference to the Senatorial election just quoted, he had no desire to shield the memory of Mr. Chase, or spare the feelings of any of his surviving relatives or friends. He seems, indeed, to have been seized with a fury of revelation long ago, and to have made up his mind that, come what might, he would let the public know whatever evil he might discover. Biography, in Mr. Warden's opinion, has chiefly suffered from the eagerness of biographers to exalt their subject, and to avoid this he seems to have determined to degrade his; so that generally throughout his book we get the impression that the writer has spent some time in getting together materials for an indictment rather than to produce a correct picture of the life of his subject. Nothing, we should infer from Mr. Warden's continually repeated disclaimer of all desire to fall into *nil nisi bonum*, would have given him so much delight as to obtain a few facts tending to show that at the age of ten Mr. Chase robbed an orchard, or that on some college occasion, mistaking a pitcher containing arrack punch for the water-pitcher, he incautiously drank a tumbler of strong drink. Had he been fortunate enough to discover anything of this sort, we should probably have been introduced to it in some such way as this: "We now approach an event in the life of Salmon Portland Chase to which we must direct the reader's closest attention, for on a correct estimation of it hinges the momentous question whether the future Chief-Justice of the United States did at this early age commit a grievous error or deadly sin, and in the determination of this question no consideration of friendship, or blood, or false view of the duty of biographer will induce the writer to extenuate or set down aught in malice." Then we should have had a chapter which would have left us as wise as we were before. But Mr. Warden is almost as bare of any facts of personal history as Mr. Shuckers himself, his investigations having apparently led him to the conclusion that Mr. Chase had no private or human feelings at all. One solitary trait of interest we find recorded in these volumes is, that people rarely "felt at ease" with Mr. Chase, and, indeed, as to his biographers, there were some reasons why they, at least, knowing what they were undertaking, should not feel so.

ANTONY BRADE.*

THE hero of 'Antony Brade' is a school-boy, Antony himself, and perhaps a good third of the volume is taken up with the direct concerns of the pupils of his school, St. Bart's, or St. Bartholomew's; but, as Mr. Lowell says, the story lies as much among grown people as among youth. For besides the view he is to give us of the ways of St. Bart's, Mr. Lowell finds that he has to satirize the social life of the town of Eastham; he has to pay his respects at length to the character of the ordinary variety of endowed-school trustee; and in particular there is one bad trustee whose appreciation of the relative position of the layman and the cleric is evidently not what the rector of St. Bart's thinks it should be, and who for this and some other reasons comes up in due season for a full measure of discipline.

To speak first of these adult parts of the book, as apparently having had most of the writer's interest and care, we may say that their satire is often clever and amusing, but that as often, or oftener, it is very clumsy and infelicitous. For example, much of the ambitious work expended on Mrs. Wadham, while singularly absurd, is very heavy. So many wonderfully sharp and sympathetic social observers, male and female, have been busy for years in New England, as well as elsewhere, that the great crudity of scenes like the Wadham party, with its tableaux and its real Russian count, is a sort of thing long obsolete, and not to be revived without the certainty of exciting the reader's displeasure. It is with a lighter and truer hand that Mr. Lowell makes the picture of his board of trustees. The gregarious carelessness and laziness of these gentlemen, and the individual fussiness and officiousness of some of them, are given with not a little graphic force. And upon the committee-man to whom we have made reference as especially obnoxious, not a little but a great deal of the artist's force has been expended. This has not preserved him from making his subject a deal of a bore a good while before we get done with him; and, what is no better, we seem to see that the artist has sacrificed to force certain superior qualities, and has made a very queer portrait in gratifying his desire to limn Mr. Parmenter for future reference. In fact the picture shows animus, as they say; and to illustrate the intensity and *semper-paratus* character of this, we will make here a brief quotation.

We must premise that Mr. Parmenter, the obnoxious trustee and benefactor, making a call on the school-rector, suggests in course of conversation one or two points for notice, and ends by animadverting gently on a habit which one of his boys has adopted of keeping his eyes shut in Morning Prayers at points of the service where other people usually have to keep their eyes open and fixed on the printed page. This eye-shutting, by the bye, of course happens not because the boy in question is a bad boy, but, on the contrary, because he is an extraordinarily good boy, and knows his prayer-book much better than his young companions do—or, in fact, ever expect to do. For his hint as regards this lad, Mr. Parmenter at once receives from the rector a very good-sized snub; but, says our author, he seemed to take no offence at all at the rebuke, and it was "with only a slight change of countenance that he accepted the difference of opinion." And now, as for why he was so quiet about it, this the author thus explains instantaneously: "It had not been without moral benefit that he had had the practice for many years of managing his temper and manners in dealing with his customers from behind a counter." Thus, we see, is Parmenter civil and well-mannered on occasion? It is because not so long ago he was compelled to be habitually almost servile. This passage, which reveals amusingly yet disagreeably the assailant's constant feeling towards one of St. Bart's chief Fundators, is an incidental passage, but it not only answers the purpose for which we have used it, but also it indicates the main charge specifically brought against Parmenter, and much insisted on: he is a seller of mercantile wares; he has himself sold his goods at retail, standing in his store; he is strong in the belief that it is good for the public that his manufactures should be sold, and, so believing, he advertises them, and does so with the most modern freedom. This is the badness, and, as Mr. Sumner would have said, the ridiculousness of Parmenter, and he can never be sufficiently pointed at and glared at for it. He adds to it what seem to be regarded as other ridiculousnesses—that of making an attempt at purchasing good pictures; of following the dim pursuits of "the collector" with less than the luck of some of the fraternity; of putting on more dignity of manner than is common among Americans who have newly made their money. On the whole, before the author is done, it is the mercantile art-student rather than the rector who has the reader's good-will, and one does not see why Mr. Parmenter, so far as concerns any deep offence against even the most fastidious of rectorial souls, may not be confidently left by his friends to the communings of both his official and his private conscience.

Of the school-boy part of 'Antony Brade' we are not qualified to speak

—so far unqualified at all events as to have no knowledge of the peculiar conduct of schools such as St. Bart's. But we may say, we suppose, that these chapters, with the young fellows in them, seem to us to be almost all labored and faithful rather than successful in hitting off the reality. We missed finding anywhere what we think we have a right to look for amid so much observation—that touch which should make us say, Here now, be it St. Bart's, or wherever else, is the genuine boy-nature: thus it would act and talk anywhere, and that this is the true ring no evidence from the outside is needed. One of the chapters, however, is most excellently spirited, and indeed probably supplies the critic with a severe standard by which to try the rest. This contains the description of the gathering for the hockey-match on the frozen lake, and of the tragical drowning, despite desperate exertions, of one of the boys who had leaped through the thin ice to save his drowning friend. All this is extremely good.

As for the mystery of young Antony Brade's name and parentage, it seems rather a useless piece of the story. But the fact is, one is prejudiced against it at the start by its rather too early apparition, and the rather silly violence of the conjectures to which it is supposed to give rise alike in the male and female Eastham mind, and the folly—greater surely than the folly of the New England woman in well-railroaded New England towns—with which these conjectures are acted upon. We would say, in conclusion, that while in point of pages, and as regards his own apparent interest in his work, Mr. Lowell has made a book dealing as much with adults as with boys, it is nevertheless, so far as regards substantial interest and value, a boy's book after all which he has made. The corridors and lesson-rooms and dormitories of St. Bart's, the trapping-ground, the foot-ball games—these are the durable parts of the story, and its real public are boys—never tired of the record of school adventure. Of this we should think there is enough in 'Antony Brade' to make it welcome for some time, though not enough to make it a permanent favorite.

GOLDSMID'S 'TELEGRAPH AND TRAVEL.'*

COLONEL GOLDSMID'S work is divided into two separate parts, the first embracing about two-thirds of the book, and containing the official history of the construction and operation of what are known as the Overland Lines from England to India, while the second gives an account of some of his journeys through Asia and Europe, while acting as Chief Director of the Indo-European Telegraph. It is worth noting, that the tales of a traveller and the official history and reports of a government department should be included in the same book, and that the latter should be published in popular form with engravings of scenery and extracts from newspapers by the direction of an English Secretary of State. Even in the hands of royalty the telegraph is the democrat of our time.

Those familiar with the progress of telegraphic communication will remember how wretched was the service from England to India prior to the year 1870. What is known as the Indo-Ottoman Overland Line extends from Constantinople through Asiatic Turkey to the head of the Persian Gulf, where it connects by a series of short cables with Karachi or Currachee, the western outpost of the British Indian telegraph system. This line, with an alternate wire from Bagdad through Persia to Bushire on the Persian Gulf, was completed early in 1865, but for five years subsequently the average time for transmitting messages from England to Karachi was between five and six days. When the line first went into operation, it was something of a feat for a telegram to get to Constantinople in five days from Karachi; a delay of fourteen days was not uncommon; and no man could say whether the mails from Constantinople to London would not prove more expeditious as well as more trustworthy than the miserable lines connecting Turkey with Western Europe. The delays of the service were matched by its inaccuracy, and a high Indian telegraph official gave utterance to a feeling prevalent in all quarters when, in 1867, he expressed his surprise that a message should ever reach England from India without mistakes. The public complaints and criticisms became so loud and pungent that the work before us is in some sort an official vindication. Colonel Goldsmid dwells at length upon the difficulties experienced in the construction of the lines. But so far as we can judge from his account, the physical obstacles were less than those confronted in the establishment of the first overland line of telegraph to California. Difficulties in procuring poles and labor, bad roads, lack of water, and uninhabited wastes, were common to both routes, and trouble was also anticipated in the one case from wander-

* 'Telegraph and Travel. A Narrative of the Formation and Development of Telegraphic Communication between England and India, under the orders of her Majesty's Government, with Incidental Notices of the Countries Traversed by the Lines. By Colonel Sir Frederic John Goldsmid, C.B., K.C.S.I., late Chief Director of the Government Indo-European Telegraph, British Commissioner for Settlement of the Perso-Baluch Frontier (1870-71), and Arbitrator in the Perso-Afghan Boundary Question (1872-73).' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

* 'Antony Brade. By Robert Lowell.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874. ■■■

ing Indians, and in the other from lawless Arabs. But beyond the propensity to use insulters as targets, little annoyance from the natives was experienced in either case. The political complications, however, which surrounded the English engineers were great, and must have seemed sometimes well-nigh hopeless. All action had to be taken under the supervision or with the concurrence of Oriental authorities, and was hampered by their jealousy, corruption, ignorance, and eternal procrastination. Still these stumbling-blocks could be removed by patience and diplomacy, and a thorough-going assistance was sometimes given in true Asiatic fashion. Colonel Goldsmid relates that on one occasion when considerable damage was done to the wires by villagers and nomads, the Shah ordered Mirza Jiafar Khan to set out at once for Shiraz, with an executioner, to cut off any heads the English telegraph officer might indicate, with further instructions to send Ali Khan Beg, the head marauder, in chains to Teheran, and to levy a fine of a thousand tomans from the chief of the nomad tribes. This programme was carried out with an approach to completeness. The Persian officer posted down to Shiraz, found and seized Ali Khan Beg, whose existence was at first positively denied by the Governor of Shiraz, squeezed out the prescribed fine, plus a second thousand for his chief in Teheran, and five hundred tomans for himself, and gave up a village where he had been insulted to wholesale plunder.

When the lines were completed and in working order, the English Government found, in the first place, that prompt and uniform work could not be obtained from Turkish officials, or from wires under their control; and, secondly, that if it could, the miserable service between Constantinople and England over the wires of half-a-dozen European governments was enough to make the new line, telegraphically speaking, a failure. To remedy such difficulties was no easy matter, but it seems astonishing that they were not foreseen and appreciated at the outset. We think Colonel Goldsmid fairly shows that, after the line was built, the English telegraph authorities made the best of a bad situation, and did all they could by patience, perseverance, and almost interminable negotiations to improve communication. But the obstacles to successful working via Constantinople were so great that they were finally driven to negotiate for a new connection running from Teheran north of the Black Sea, via Odessa, Warsaw, and Berlin, to the German Ocean, where connection could be made by cable with England. Under concessions from Russia, Prussia, and Persia granted the firm of Messrs. Siemens Brothers, a private company contracted to supply the English Government with two through wires for Indo-European business exclusively, reaching from the landing of the cables at the German Ocean to the city of Teheran. The line from Teheran to the Persian Gulf, and the cables to India, were under the control of the English telegraph administration, so that when the Siemens line was opened on the 31st of January, 1870, a new era began in Indian telegraphing. Meantime, however, the complaints of the public and the progress in the manufacture of cables had been such that an English private company had undertaken to lay a cable to India via the Red Sea, and commenced working their line in the spring of 1870. With the opening of the Siemens line, and, we may add, under the spur of private competition, the Government service has steadily improved, until in 1873 the average time per message from England to India has been reduced to three hours and nine minutes. But it is well worth noting that, though perhaps matched in efficiency, the private company's cables via Suez have been able to take from the Government the lion's share of the traffic. The Turkish line gets 4 per cent. of the business, the Government line via Teheran 32 per cent., the Red Sea line the remainder, or 64 per cent.

The statement of the capital and revenue account of the Indo-European telegraph department shows that the investment of the British Government has been nearly six millions of dollars in gold, while the receipts for nine years have been £37,000 less than the expenses, without including any interest on capital. The estimated earnings for 1873-4 are £61,000; estimated expenditure, £68,000. Whatever it may be politically, it is plain that in a financial and business aspect the Government line to India has been a failure.

We have left ourselves little space to speak of Colonel Goldsmid's travels, which are decidedly the best portion of the work, and cover journeys seldom made, through Persia, Beloochistan, Russia, and Asia Minor. The 'Telegraph' portion is dry and tedious, and contains little of interest to the general public, or of value to the professional reader. It is indeed singularly free from the evidence of professional skill on the part of the author. There is also a lack of clearness in arrangement and statement, and an exhausting abundance of unimportant details. As a traveller, the Colonel is less prolix, and the extracts from his journal on the way from Bagdad to Constantinople, and from St. Petersburg via Astrakhan to Teheran, afford some relief from the dullness of the greater part of the book.

THE MAGAZINES FOR NOVEMBER.

MR. RICHARD GRANT WHITE'S paper, called a "Musical Monster," in the *Galaxy*, turns out to be composed mainly of some reminiscences and stories of prima-donnas, of whom Mr. White converses knowingly and entertainingly. The fuming and petulance with which the article begins, and which does not seem too respectful either to Mr. White's audience or to himself, appears to be all about the lyric stage and the opera, and the argument with which our perturbed writer first presents the reader is of a kind to merit the same commendation that we have given to the article's tone. It is not an argument to be seriously presented. It is that mouldy piece of ratiocination familiar to the pulpit in its war upon the dance, which goes to show that could an inhabitant of another sphere come to ours and witness on our stage the performance of an opera, hear people singing their dying confessions, asking for a valet in a baritone recitative, and so on, he would think himself in an unaccountable world, or that the performance before him was a performance of lunatics. So Master Stultus probably might think; but little as we have esteemed him ever since we first heard of him from the sacred desk, now many years ago, we doubt not he would speedily learn the fact that art is one thing and nature another; that always we have to make concessions—to some forms of art more, to some less; that the true principle once admitted, operatic plays are justified precisely as painted portraits are—and so forth, and so forth, as Mr. White ought to be ashamed to make anybody go after him and say. Apparently, Mr. White would be but a poor guide for the new-comer, or else he might teach him that in the land where the operatic drama had its birth it had excellently good reason for coming into existence, as being to the impressible people who were its spectators dramatic in the same way (we suppose we may say) in which "Othello" is dramatic to our colder natures. And he might be taught, furthermore, instead of looking on our operatic drama as the great musical monster, to look on it as a performance in which, no matter how much is lost to the spectators born in our colder clime, they get for their money some dramatic effects and (what they have chosen to care for) some beautiful singing in a setting that pleases them better than a less elaborate one.

If Mr. White sometimes takes a tone with his audience with which they can hardly be pleased, we have another writer in the month's magazines who deserves to be brought before the bar of the public. This offender is Dr. Holland, of *Scribner's*, who each month seems to button his coat higher towards his chin and assume more and more of a military brusqueness of manner towards his fellows. A couple of months ago he came out, and casting to the winds the various theories and counter-theories in regard to the Brooklyn scandal—and, as we know, they were numerous, and some of them the work of persons whom Dr. Holland has not established his right to treat with impertinence—he told us in one word that as it was simply physically impossible that so laborious a man as the accused should be guilty, whoever believed him to be so was—we forget what bad thing; evil in the suppositions of his heart, we believe, as well as stupid; and closing up the "Topics of the Time," he left us with the matter settled, and further discussion both useless and silly. This month we have him again on the same general subject, "The Relations of Clergymen to Women," and he is as absolute as ever. It seems that there are in the congregations only two classes of women with whom the minister is liable to have dangerous intimacies. The first consists of discontented wives. "... A woman finds herself married to a brute. She suffers long in silence; her heart is broken or weary, and she wants counsel, and is dying for sympathy. She tells her story to the one man who is—to her—guide, teacher, inspirer, and friend. He gives her the best counsel of which he is capable, comforts her if he can, sympathizes with her, treats her with kindness and consideration. That a woman should in many instances look upon such a man as little less than a god, and come to regard him as almost her only solace amid the daily accumulating trials of her life, is as natural as it is for water to run down-hill. That she should respect him more than she can respect a brutal husband—that half-an-hour of his society should be worth more to her heart and her self-respect than the miserable years of her bondage to a cruel master, is also entirely natural. He cannot help it, nor can he find temptation in it, unless he chooses to do so. Women, under these circumstances, do not go to their pastors either to tempt or to be tempted." One class, then, of dangerous women is cleared out of the way. The women are not dangerous, and the minister, so far from being tempted, obviously is not tempted by his enquiring friend—which disposes of him and of the only real possibility of clerical unchastity in the churches. The cool assumption of all this the reader may not perceive at first, but by-and-by it becomes evident on what a manufactured basis the reasoner has grounded the generalizations which he so freely flings down for our acceptance. Of these we must quote one, because expressed in that striking way which Dr. Holland has recently adopted. This is the lan-

guage: "They [the ministers of the country] average better than the apostles did at first. Jesus in his little company of twelve found one that was a devil. The world has improved, until we believe there is not more than one devil in a hundred." With this sample of forcible expression we give another, also taken from the discourse on the second kind of women who are dangerous to ministers. These, by the way, are "a very harmless set—gushing maiden ladies, aged and discreet widows with nice houses, sentimental married women who, with no brains to lend, are fond of borrowing them for the ornamentation of all possible social occasions." "Now," says Dr. Holland, by way of ending controversies, "to suppose that a pastor sufficiently putty-headed to be pleased with this sort of worship is in a field of temptation to unchastity is simply absurd."

In the list of its articles, the November *Scribner's* has Mr. King's "Great South" as usual, the statistical, historical, social, political hodge-podge to which he seems entirely unable to bring order of any kind that shall make easy reading of his sketches. Florida, with its orange-groves, its delightful climate, and all the rest, is the portion excerpted this month. Miss Saxe Holm begins one of her well-known stories. It is thus that they go: Two youths, seventeen or eighteen years of age, on a winter's day, go down by stage to a small town in Maine, where they are to "rusticate" under the charge of an elderly clergyman. On the way, a place is taken in the coach by a man nearly dead drunk, who has with him his little daughter, aged perhaps ten. The youth who rides inside with the child sees that she is poorly clad, and probably is ill-used in all ways. Arrived at the village, the drunken man is lifted out and carried into a chamber, and the child continues to be the temporary charge of our friend Jim, the sophomore. He, at notice so short as must have been surprising to his co-mate, becomes the most sentimental of all possible persons: he has often lain awake and wept because he had no sister; this and similar states of feeling on his part he had never mentioned to his chum; he feels that in Ally (the little girl) he might find what he wishes, etc. One obstacle is at once cleanly removed, for the drunken father, when it is attempted to awaken him, thinking himself involved in a fight, draws a revolver and, shooting wildly, kills himself. He is an Englishman, by the bye, and only a few days in the country, and this same revolver is doubtless a free gift of Miss Holm's. The way now seems clear for Jim Ordway's adoption of the child. He announces such to be his intention to the people of the house, who are disposed to grin. To tell the truth, they know him as a young gentleman under rustication, and of apparent irresponsibility, regarded from a pecuniary point of view. Mr. Ordway sees this, and stepping forward makes a little speech, to the effect that he means what he says, and with a "will this be enough do you think, to get what she needs at present?" Jim quietly puts a hundred dollar bill in Mr. Bunker's hands. This last is much in Saxe Holm's way. There is plenty of sentiment. Everything is sweet and strong, and most of it on a level with what we have quoted, which is pretty much on a level with the talk children have after they have gone to bed: when Jack is rich Fred is to have a hundred thousand million two hundred hundred dollars; when Fred keeps store Jack is to have all the nuts he can carry.

The rest of the *Galaxy*, besides Mr. White's article, is made up of a paper on the present condition of the English Church by Mr. Justin McCarthy, always readable except in his novels; the beginning of "Leah, a Woman of Fashion," by Mrs. Annie Edwards, author of "Ought We to Visit Her?" and of other stories well known to *Galaxy* readers, and an article which looks learned and proper on "The Jewish Dietary System."

The most notable article in all the magazines is Dr. Holmes's tribute to the late Jeffries Wyman which appears in the *Atlantic*—the only magazine which can now and again, recalling old times, give to the public a contributor's essay far beyond any magazine line of excellence. This essay is full of a sincerity of affection for the man, and of admiration for the scientific scholar and student, which make it nothing less than admirable and captivating. The *Atlantic* contains, besides, some chapters of Mr. Howells's story which would seem to show that the end is close at hand. Indeed the tragedy of the end seems to have already culminated and subsided in the mischance of poor Don Ippolito. The portion of the story here given is very dramatic in feeling and in situation. Mr. Fiske's comparison of our culture and conditions of culture with those of the Greeks of the great days gives us remote hopes of a time when, the world having been subdued by means of the material forces which man has made subservient to him, and machinery being made to do the work of men, we shall again have a period of individual culture and repose. Mr. Robert Dale Owen writes garrulously of some stale chapters in the lore of spiritualism as early manifested.

Lippincott's, apart from its general readableness, is noticeable this month for a ponderous essay by the late Lord Lytton on "The Genius of Conservatism."

In *Harper's* we have an article by a practised shot, and seemingly something of a martinet in his profession of shooting, which doubtless all sportsmen will be glad to look at. "Among the Waterfowl of the West" is the title of it. "The Bahamas" (with illustrations) is an article to add new horrors to the thought of the Northern winter. It is pleasantly written.

The Hunter and the Trapper in North America; or, Romantic Adventures in Field and Forest. From the French of Benedict Révoil. By W. H. Davenport Adams. (London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons.)—The success which has attended the translation into English of the fictions of Jules Verne has probably led to the composition of this volume, which purports to be a recital of facts, and is recommended in the preface as an "introduction to the study of natural history, or a companion and supplement to formal scientific treatises." The general style of the book indicates that it was written for a young class of readers, to whom tales of sport and adventure naturally appeal most strongly. Nobody can deny the usefulness of books of this kind, when, with a sufficient tinge of romance to render them interesting, they convey accurate information about the habits of wild animals, the peculiarities of the countries they inhabit, and the people who live there. In this field Captain Mayne Reid's services are to be spoken of with respect, and his descriptions of the far West, where many of his scenes are laid, are generally true to nature. As evidence, on the other hand, of the profound knowledge of the geography and natural history of the United States possessed by M. Révoil, we give the following specimens: On p. 14 he speaks of being "on Eagle Lake in Adirondack County at the foot of the Catskill Mountains." In this region he had been "traversing hills and valleys in the pursuit of widgeons and quails." In the wilderness of the Adirondacks there are no quails (which live exclusively about clearings), and as for widgeons, we fancy it would be rather difficult to find any either in the hills and valleys of the Adirondacks or Catskills. After a recital of trout-fishing in February (which is out of season) M. Révoil, on pp. 22 and 23, speaks "about discovering an island about a mile in length and breadth, and situated at the extreme point of Staten Island," one of the number "which cluster about this spot from New York to Key West." "In this wild solitude, remote from all civilization and having no contact with the rest of the world," M. Révoil found a young woman "of an aspect severe yet gentle," whose voice reminded him of the babbling of the American thrush when watching over her brood, and whose principal subsistence was fish and "stags, which she caught in snares." Whether the stags were captured on the small island, on Staten Island, or on Key West, is left to the conjecture of the reader, and as they are equally plentiful in all of these places, it does not make much difference. Further on he speaks of the Pawnee Indians inhabiting the "Plains of Arkansas" (this tribe has never lived in Arkansas), and on p. 53 tells us of what he calls a "successful sporting expedition after wild turkeys, in which a large flock of these birds was run down by Indians on foot, who first caught the turkeys and then wrung their necks." The Indians must have been pretty thoroughly tired after this feat.

Chapter IV. is devoted to the wolf, and here M. Révoil confounds the coyote, or prairie-wolf, a comparatively harmless animal, with the large gray wolf, which partially bears out his statement of being "among the most rapacious and dangerous animals of North America." After several very apocryphal narratives concerning this animal, he tells us about the opossum, and treats us to a French version of the well-known story of David Crockett and the coon. He assures us that in 1845 he became acquainted with the "celebrated original," who resided in Philadelphia, cherished the notion that he was a second Robin Hood, and "whom his compatriots had raised to the rank of commander of the National Guard of that city." With Crockett M. Révoil started hunting opossums from Philadelphia, driving with him in a light wagon to "Macomb's Dam, about ten miles distant," which was in 1845 a favorite resort for the animals of which they were in quest. The raccoon next engages the author's attention, and to this animal he gives, with a very few of its own attributes, the principal ones of the fox and bear. His last raccoon chase, which he pursued with a pack of "five bloodhounds," was "in a cedar wood on the bank of the Crow-Nest River, not far from the famous military school of West Point, New York County." In Chap. VII. he hunts with the "Toway" Indians at the confluence of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers. There, in the depths of a winter which he describes as frightfully cold, he shoots "snipe and moor-hens," the Indians kill "bisons and elands"—the only time, we venture to say, the latter animal has been seen on this continent; and informs his readers that the art of falconry, now almost obsolete in Europe, is thoroughly understood and practised by the Blackfoot Indians, who inhabit the region above-named.

The panther is treated of at length, its size being given as that of a large

fox or small wolf. M. Révoil kills numbers of these animals, and describes a conflict between one of them and the "celebrated Billy Bowlegs, chief of the Carib Indians," which took place on a "cold frosty morning" on the banks of the river St. John, near St. Augustine, Florida. Billy attacked the panther in a tree, and after punching him up with a stick killed him with a knife. After hunting "stags," which he confounds with the Virginia deer, and which properly do not exist in the United States, "on the borders of Big Wolf Lake, thirty miles from the great sheets of water named the Paranaes," and killing scores of them, M. Révoil tells us about the elk. This animal, which he confounds with the moose, is not found in Lower Canada, where he lays the scene of its exploits, neither do lianas hang festooned from the trees in that part of the world. His descriptions of moose and cariboo hunting are not only very highly colored but absolutely untrue to the nature and habits of the animals and those who successfully pursue them. With the grizzly bear, however, our author is at his strongest. He has the greatest contempt for the prowess of this formidable animal. In one method the Indians have for his destruction a number of them squat on the ground when the bear is seen, and with taunts and missiles provoke him to the attack. When sufficiently enraged, the bear pounces on one of them, who is not always fatally injured thereby, and while thus occupied the remainder of them seize him by the hind legs, turn him over, and despatch him with their knives. This reminds us of Dr. Johnson's saying to Boswell that he had so little fear of dogs that if attacked by one or two large ones, nothing would be easier for him than to seize them by the hind legs and dash their brains out against a wall. A single Indian, armed with a bowie-knife, attacks and kills, in the trunk of a large maple, a grizzly bear weighing nearly 2,000 pounds. Bears of this kind, we are told, contrary to the well-known fact, "clamber large trees as nimbly as squirrels." Bear stories occupy several chapters, and the book concludes with bison-hunting and chapters descriptive of the habits, customs, and virtues of the Western Indians, all of which abound in displays of ignorance of the country, its inhabitants and animals.

The illustrations are good for a book on hunting, if not appropriate to this one. Wild turkeys are represented as being chased by pointers, which look like Newfoundlanders, over a plain bordered by palm-trees; a fox heads the chapter on raccoons; the wild-cat is represented as having a tail as long and nearly as large as its body, whereas it is about as nearly tailless as any animal of our forests; the picture of the "stag" is evidently a copy of that of Doré's in Baron Munchausen, which has a cherry-tree growing out of his head; a very fair representation of the moose stands for the elk, which is an entirely different animal; the cariboo and bison are evidently creatures of the artist's imagination; and for the Western antelope he has given us the picture of some South African animal with a hump on his back. The style of the narrative is agreeable and interesting, the stories generally well told, and as a sample of what may be written on subjects to which the author naturally and by experience is utterly incapable of doing any justice, we would recommend the book to our readers.

Elementary History of Art: an Introduction to Ancient and Modern Architecture, Sculpture, Painting, Music. By N. D'Anvers. With a Preface by T. Roger Smith, F.R.I.B.A. Illustrated with one hundred and twenty

woodcuts. (New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong, 1875. Crown 8vo, pp. xxiv.-646.)—The attempt to produce concise universal histories of art should be given up. Architecture, sculpture, and painting are, next to literature, the chief records of civilization. For long tracts of time, and for numerous races, their monuments are more important than those of literature itself. They cannot be properly treated except in connection with the history of the society to whose character and emotions they gave expression, or whose deeds they recorded. A brief account of the progress of the arts might indeed be given by a thorough and thoughtful historian, capable of discriminating their essential qualities, and acquainted with the steps of their development and their decline. Such a manual, filled out with tables of comparative chronology and with lists of artists, is a book much to be desired. Stendhal's 'Histoire de la Peinture en Italie,' fragmentary and imperfect as it is, is worth more than a whole armful of common guides and handbooks of Italian art. It was the work of a man of superior quality, who knew the history of Italy and the nature of her people.

Such an 'Elementary History' as that of M. D'Anvers is good for nobody. It can only supply the ignorant with a mass of ill-assorted facts, and enable them to smatter about what it does not help them to understand. A book of the sort might have a certain secondary value if its statements were carefully made, its definitions exactly considered, and its characterizations sharply marked. In each of these respects this volume is defective. One example of each of these faults is all we have space for. They may be taken as specimens of the mass. On page 236 we are told that "Giovanni Pisano introduced a new style in sculpture, which may be characterized as realistic; the first employment of it was in the sculptures of the west front of Orvieto cathedral, on which all the chief artists of Tuscany were employed." Now, the facts are that Giovanni Pisano, far from introducing a new style of realistic sculpture, developed in a romantic spirit the more realistic style of his father Niccolò; and that, as to the artists employed on the sculptures of the front of the cathedral at Orvieto, nothing whatsoever is known, or, as Luzi, the historian of the cathedral, says: "It hardly seems credible that the documents are silent concerning the sculptor or sculptors who wrought them." So much for careful statement. On page 293 is the following definition of painting: "Painting is the art of representing on a flat surface, by means of line and color, objects as they appear in nature—that is to say, in such a manner that the picture produced shall within certain limits affect the eye in the same way as do the objects themselves." It would be hard to crowd a greater number of errors into a definition, or to miss more completely the essential significance of the word defined. Of Sandro Botticelli—misnamed by M. D'Anvers Botticello—we have on page 344 the following account: "The pupil of Filippo Lippi, famed for the introduction of ancient mythology into sacred subjects, and for being the first of the great series of painters in the famous Sistine Chapel of the Vatican, three of whose works are in the National Gallery." And this is all that is said of a painter of the highest gifts of imagination and fancy, of deep solemnity of purpose, abundant in conception, and intense in completion—one of the most consummate artists of Italy.

A minor defect of the book, as regards general use, is that it is calculated for the meridian of London. The references to works in the National Gallery and the British Museum occupy a disproportionate space.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 2, 1874.

THE money market remains easy at 2 to 3 per cent. on call, and money-lenders have had great difficulty in using their surplus funds, even at the low rates prevailing. Money on time has been offered for thirty days at 3 per cent. during the past week, and at 4 per cent. for sixty days. Commercial paper finds ready sale at 5 to 6 per cent., and the demand for prime names exceeds the supply. There are no signs of any increased demand for money. Business of all kinds remains dull, and business men are not inclined, during the present uncertain state of affairs, to take large ventures. Stagnation prevails at the Stock Exchange, and the amount of money required there to carry the different securities dealt in is very much less than it was before the panic of last year, owing to the shrinkage in values which has been going on in those stocks of a purely speculative nature.

Cable advices report a loss of £115,000 in the bullion of the Bank of England for the week ending on Thursday last. The minimum rate of discount remains standing at 4 per cent.

The weekly statement of the New York Clearing-house banks on Saturday showed a further falling-off in the surplus reserve, amounting to \$660,275. The surplus reserve is \$15,179,525 over the amount required by law, and is not likely to fall much below that figure. The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

| | Oct. 24. | Oct. 31. | Differences. |
|--------------------|---------------|---------------|------------------|
| Loans..... | \$281,873,500 | \$281,958,500 | Inc... \$85,000 |
| Specie..... | 13,585,300 | 12,021,100 | Dec... 1,564,100 |
| Legal tenders..... | 58,830,800 | 59,621,600 | Inc... 790,800 |
| Deposits..... | 226,304,800 | 225,852,700 | Dec... 452,100 |
| Circulation..... | 25,013,500 | 25,057,500 | Inc... 44,000 |

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

| | Oct. 24. | Oct. 31. | Differences. |
|--|--------------|--------------|--------------------|
| Specie..... | \$13,585,300 | \$12,021,100 | Dec... \$1,564,100 |
| Legal tenders..... | 58,830,800 | 59,621,600 | Inc... 790,800 |
| Total reserve..... | \$72,416,000 | \$71,642,700 | Dec... \$773,300 |
| Reserve required against deposits..... | 56,576,200 | 56,463,175 | Inc... 113,025 |
| Excess of reserve above legal requirement..... | 15,839,800 | 15,179,525 | Dec... 660,275 |

The stock market has been devoid of interest, if we except a movement to advance the price of Lake Shore, which so far has amounted to very little. The market, with the exception of Lake Shore, is singularly free from combinations either to advance or depress prices. Parties who have undertaken to move stocks up have met with little encouragement from operators on the Street or from outside people. The dividend-paying stocks have all been strong, and prices at the close of the week show a considerable improvement over those at the close of the week previous, the improvement being greatest in New York Central and Rock Island. Delaware, Lackawanna and Western and New Jersey Central are both strong, with a constant demand and a limited amount of stock offering.

The following shows the extremes of the leading stocks during the week:

| | Highest. | Lowest. | | Highest. | Lowest. |
|---------------------------------------|----------|---------|--|----------|---------|
| New York Central..... | 102½ | 100½ | Illinois Central..... | 92½ | 91½ |
| Harlem..... | 130 | 128½ | Union Pacific..... | 34½ | 33½ |
| Erie..... | 80½ | 79½ | C. C. and I. C..... | 10½ | 8½ |
| Lake Shore..... | 80½ | 79½ | Hannibal and St. Joseph..... | 24½ | 23½ |
| Wabash..... | 30½ | 29 | Hannibal and St. Joseph preferred..... | 28½ | 26½ |
| Northwestern..... | 37½ | 36½ | Ohio and Mississippi..... | 28½ | 27½ |
| Northwestern preferred..... | 53½ | 52 | Boston, Hartford and Erie..... | ½ | ½ |
| Rock Island..... | 98½ | 96½ | Panama..... | 114½ | 113½ |
| St. Paul..... | 33 | 31½ | Western Union Telegraph..... | 80½ | 78½ |
| St. Paul preferred..... | 50½ | 50 | Pacific Mail..... | 46½ | 44½ |
| Pittsburg..... | 87½ | 87 | Quicksilver..... | 80½ | 80 |
| Delaware, Lackawanna and Western..... | 108½ | 107½ | Quicksilver preferred..... | 37½ | 37 |
| New Jersey Central..... | 106½ | 104½ | Adams Express..... | 116 | 113 |
| Michigan Central..... | 74 | 73½ | Atlantic & Pacific Telegraph..... | 19 | 15½ |

Government securities have been steady, prices having undergone no important changes since last week.

The gold market has been more active than usual, and a trifling advance has taken place in the quotations, caused by the demand for cash gold, which on Wednesday loaned as high as ½ for its use. The market closed strong on Saturday at 110½. The following shows the range of fluctuations for every day during the past week:

| | Opening. | Highest. | Lowest. | Closing. |
|-------------------------|----------|----------|---------|----------|
| Monday, Oct. 26..... | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 |
| Tuesday, Oct. 27..... | 110 | 110 | 110 | 110 |
| Wednesday, Oct. 28..... | 110 | 110½ | 110 | 110½ |
| Thursday, Oct. 29..... | 110½ | 110½ | 110½ | 110½ |
| Friday, Oct. 30..... | 110½ | 110½ | 110½ | 110½ |
| Saturday, Oct. 31..... | 110½ | 110½ | 110½ | 110½ |

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